DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 291 668 SO 019 001

AUTHOR	Johnson, Jacquelyn; Parisi, Lynn S.
TITLE	Japan in the Classroom: Elementary and Secondary Activities.
INSTITUTION	Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-89994-318-7
PUB DATE	87
NOTE	160p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Social Science Education Consortium, 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302.
PUB TYPE	Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC07 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Art Education; Class Activities; *Cross Cultural Studies; *Cultural Awareness; Cultural Influences; *Culture; Curriculum Enrichment; Curriculum Guides; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; History; Humanities; Instructional Materials; *Japanese; Learning Activities; Social Studies
IDENTIFIERS	*Japan

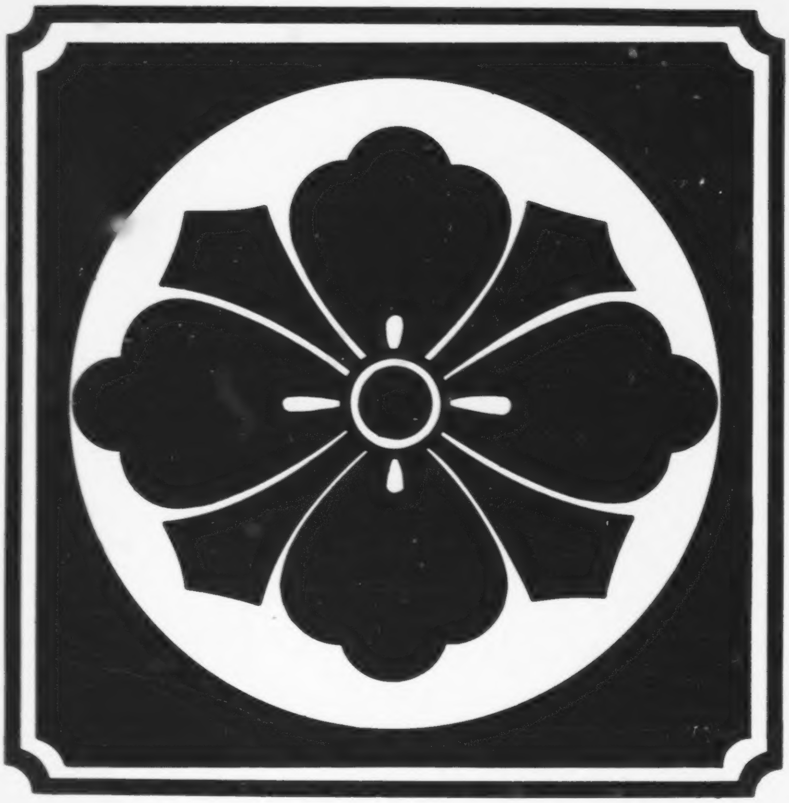
ABSTRACT

The activities in this book focus on teaching about Japan within the context of larger social science units. Several of the lessons can be taught within the context of the humanities and fine arts. The book's 18 classroom activities are organized into three sections. Section 1, "Society and Culture," contains four activities in which students examine (1) national self-perceptions and images through U.S. and Japanese symbols; (2) Japanese and U.S. cross-cultural communication; (3) Japanese history; and (4) the impact of geography and culture on food and eating habits in Japan. Section 2 contains a variety of activities on Japanese language and literature focusing on the Japanese writing system; number system; proverbs; poetry; and children's literature. The final section, "International Relations," contains eight activities emphasizing Japanese population, industralization, and U.S.-Japan economic and political relations. The economic and cultural connections between the U.S. students' own states and communities and Japan is highlighted in this section. Each activity includes a brief introduction, objectives, time schedule, step-by-step procedures for implementation, teacher background information, and student handouts. The book concludes with a list of resources. (SM)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED291668

Japan In The Classroom



ELEMENTARY
AND
SECONDARY
ACTIVITIES

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
Boulder, Colorado

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

James R.
Giese

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☑ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy

SO019001

JAPAN IN THE CLASSROOM

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY ACTIVITIES

Jacquelyn Johnson and Lynn S. Parisi

with

John Benegar
Phyllis Clarke
Ted Kempton
Marcee Kutner
Ann Rasich
Reny Sieck
Sally Stoker
Mina Temby
Jaye Zola

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
Boulder, Colorado
1987

ORDERING INFORMATION

This publication is available from:

Social Science Education Consortium
855 Broadway
Boulder, CO 80302

ISBN 0-89994-318-7

© 1987 Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.

The materials in this volume may be reproduced for classroom use at the instance of the individual teacher. Reproduction by any means, electronic or mechanical, for any purpose other than classroom use is prohibited without written permission from the publisher.

CONTENTS

FOREWORD . . . iv

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS . . . v

INTRODUCTION . . . 1

SECTION I: SOCIETY AND CULTURE . . . 3

1. Japan and the United States: Comparing National Symbols and Images . . . 5
2. Cross-Cultural Communication . . . 11
3. You Are What You Eat: The Relationship Between Food, Environment, and Culture . . . 19
4. Japanese History in a Global Perspective . . . 35

SECTION II: JAPANESE LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE . . . 41

5. Learning the Alphabet with Japanese Artifacts . . . 43
6. *Kanji*: One Kind of Japanese Writing . . . 45
7. Japanese Numbers . . . 83
8. A Stick Before You Tumble: Japanese Proverbs . . . 91
9. Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes . . . 97
10. Japan Through Poetry: One View of a Unique Asian Country . . . 103

SECTION III: INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS . . . 107

11. Tradition and Change: A Case Study of Economic Development . . . 109
12. Many People, Little Land . . . 117
13. Good and Plenty . . . 123
14. Who's on First? . . . 131
15. Ambassadors and Foreign Policy: The Case of Mike Mansfield . . . 137
16. The Japan Connection in Our Community . . . 149
17. Japan in Your State . . . 153
18. Working for Japan, Inc.: A Community Decision-Making Activity . . . 157

RESOURCES . . . 173

FOREWORD

Study of other cultures is an integral part of the traditional social studies curriculum; it begins as early as grade 1, where young students learn about families in other cultures, and continues through grades 3 (study of communities in other cultures), 6 and 7 (study of world regions), and 10 (study of world geography). In districts that have adopted a global approach, study of other cultures may be an element of the program at every grade level.

The longstanding and widespread inclusion of culture study in the curriculum does not, however, mean that it is an area in which all of teachers' needs for strategies and materials have been met. In fact, teachers often struggle to help students understand cultures with which neither the teachers nor students have had direct experience. The proliferation of foreign travel programs for teachers has provided many individual teachers and school districts with the opportunity to enrich their teaching about one or more cultures through direct experience of the culture. Yet, too often, the effects of these programs remain local.

In 1985, teachers from the Cherry Creek (Colorado) School District and staff of the Social Science Education Consortium participated in a foreign travel experience – a Fulbright Hays trip to Japan. The program produced numerous benefits: (1) improved teaching about Japan in Cherry Creek schools, (2) a ripple effect in the classrooms of teachers who were able to attend training activities offered by program participants, (3) continued involvement of SSEC staff in travel programs for teachers, and (4) publication of this volume of teaching activities developed by program participants. While use of this volume cannot simulate the travel experience of the teacher-contributors, we hope that users will find in it activities and materials that will make study of one culture – that of Japan – richer and more meaningful.

James R. Giese, Executive Director
Social Science Education Consortium

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The activities in this book were selected from more than 50 lessons developed by teachers and curriculum developers who participated in the 1985 project "Japan and Colorado: Linking Schools and Communities." The project was sponsored by the Social Science Education Consortium and the Cherry Creek (Colorado) Schools and was funded, in part, by the Fulbright Hays Group Projects Abroad program of the U.S. Department of Education. A total of 21 educators, including 18 elementary and secondary classroom teachers, took part in the project, which included a four-week seminar in Japan and a yearlong curriculum development and dissemination effort. The primary goal of the project was to provide participants with an intensive, firsthand experience in Japan, a country that is increasingly important in world economic and political affairs and one that provides a useful point of comparison and contrast to American models of social organization and historical and economic development. Through this study experience and curriculum development effort that followed, the project sought to enhance and improve teaching about Japan and U.S./Japan relations throughout the schools involved in the project and beyond.

All of the educators involved in the project developed high-quality lessons for use in their classrooms and school district. In selecting lessons for this publication, we sought to include materials that provided fresh approaches to topics generally included in the study of Japan at the elementary and secondary level: cross-cultural perceptions, family and society, language and literature, economics, and geography. We also sought to provide activities that would help students understand the cultural and economic connections between themselves, their own communities, and Japan. Activities are provided for each grade level, kindergarten through 12, in which Japan might be covered in the general or social studies curricula.

Many people deserve thanks for their contributions to this project. We would like to thank Dr. Irving Morrissett, Executive Director Emeritus, Social Science Education Consortium, for the organizational support provided for our Fulbright Group project to Japan; Dr. Joyce Lebra, project scholar and Professor of Japanese History, for sharing her expertise on Japanese history and contemporary society; and Dr. Richard Koeppe, former Superintendent of the Cherry Creek (Colorado) Schools, for critical encouragement and support of the curriculum efforts undertaken by participating Cherry Creek teachers. We also wish to thank the many members of the greater Denver community who contributed time and assistance in developing and implementing the Japan and Colorado Project.

This project could not have succeeded without the hard work and dedication of the teachers and administrators who undertook to develop and field test Japan-related activities following their summer seminar in Japan. These teachers not only fulfilled an important commitment to a project goal, they have continued to enhance their students' understanding of Japan and global relations and to share their expertise and enthusiasm with other educators long after this project officially ended.

For their assistance in the production of this activity book, we wish to thank Linda Wojtan, Midwest Program for Teaching About Japan, for her thoughtful review of the manuscript; Sylvia Thomas, for cheerfully typing, typing, and retyping drafts of the activities; Robert D. LaRue, Jr., for compiling the very helpful list of resources; Leslie Hendrikson, for her fine illustrations; Laurel Singleton, for her care in editing; and Cindy Cook, for her excellent preparation of the final publication.

Lynn S. Parisi
Jacquelyn Johnson

INTRODUCTION

This activity book, *Japan in the Classroom,* is designed to present information and insights on Japanese culture and society. Recognizing that few teachers can afford the luxury of devoting entire units to the study of Japan, these activities focus on teaching about Japan within the context of larger social science units. In addition, some of these lessons can be taught within the context of the humanities and fine arts. In this way, it is hoped that more teachers will be able to integrate information about Japan into the required social studies curriculum.

The book's 18 classroom activities are organized into three sections. Section I, Society and Culture, contains four activities for studying Japan from a cross-cultural perspective. Students examine American and Japanese national symbols and – through these – national self-perceptions and images; Japanese and American cross-cultural communication; Japanese history; and the impact of geography and culture on food and eating habits in Japan.

Section II contains a variety of activities on Japanese Language and Literature. Separate activities focus on the Japanese writing system; numbering system; proverbs; poetry; and children's literature. A primary lesson provides guidelines for using Japanese artifacts for a cross-cultural lesson on the alphabet.

The final section, International Relations, contains eight activities on Japanese economic and geopolitical relations. In addition to activities on Japanese population, industrialization, and U.S.-Japan economic and political relations, three activities focus on developing student awareness of economic and cultural connections between their own states and communities and Japan.

The activities are presented in a standard format. A brief introduction describes the activity. This is followed by a list of objectives, an estimation of the time required to use the activity (assuming class periods of approximately 45 minutes in length), and a list of materials needed to complete the activity. Next is a step-by-step listing of procedures for implementing the activity. Teacher background information and black-line masters needed in the activity follow. The table below will help you select activities that meet your needs. The book concludes with a list of resources.

MATRIX OF ACTIVITIES

Number/Title	Grade Level	Time Required (in class periods)	Topic	Activity Description
1. Japan and the United States	7-12	2-3	National symbols, traits	Small-group analysis of U.S. and Japan symbols; discussion/comparison of national values
2. Cross-Cultural Communication	7-12	1-2	Cultural differences in communication	Reading and discussion of scenarios; role play or written assignment
3. You Are What You Eat	6-9	2	Relationship between food, environment, and culture	Brainstorming; reading and discussion; individual presentations based on readings
4. Japanese History in a Global Perspective	4-8	2	Historical events and developments	Research; construction of Japanese and U.S. or European history timelines

MATRIX OF ACTIVITIES				
Number/Title	Grade Level	Time Required (in class periods)	Topic	Activity Description
5. Learning the Alphabet with Japanese Artifacts	K-1	ongoing	Alphabet, Japanese artifacts	Matching artifacts and initial letters; scavenger hunt; comparing and contrasting
6. Kanji: One Kind of Japanese Writing	4-9	1-2	Alphabets, language	Drawing; discussion; character matching and interpretation
7. Japanese Numbers	4-9	1	Number systems	Discussion; worksheet
8. A Stick Before You Tumble	4-8	1-2	Proverbs, values	Brainstorming; analysis of proverbs; discussion; writing
9. Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes	4-6	3-4	Bombing of Hiroshima, courage, origami	Discussion; reading; research
10. Japan Through Poetry	7-12	1	Views of nature – Japan, Korea, U.S.	Poetry analysis; drawing
11. Tradition and Change	7-12	2	Economic development	Small-group analysis; drawing or writing; decision making
12. Many People, Little Land	6-10	1-2	Population density	Discussion; creating special graphics; worksheet
13. Good and Plenty	7-12	2	Housing, resource use	Discussion; analysis of data; data collection
14. Who's on First?	7-12	1-2	Population, gross national product	Map drawing and reading; hypothesizing; discussion
15. Ambassadors and Foreign Policy	9-12	1-2	Role of ambassadors; U.S.-Japan trade relations	Brainstorming; reading; discussion; collecting articles
16. The Japan Connection in Our Community	4-9	1-2	Cultural connections, interdependence	Analysis of resource materials (phone books, newspapers, etc.); discussion
17. Japan in Your State	4-9	1	Cultural connections, interdependence	Discussion; game
18. Working for Japan, Inc.	7-12	2-3	Japanese investment in U.S.	Discussion; research; role play; decision making; reading; drawing and writing

SECTION I

SOCIETY AND CULTURE

1. JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES:
COMPARING NATIONAL SYMBOLS AND IMAGES

Introduction:

In this activity, students analyze a variety of symbols significant in U.S. or Japanese cultures. They describe the images and attributes these symbols convey about the national characters of the two countries.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Identify and explain the significance of several symbols of Japanese and American societies.

2. Make hypotheses about what can be learned about Japanese culture and history by examining several symbols.

Grade Level: 7-12

Teaching Time: 2-3 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handout 1-1 for all students

Procedure:

1. To introduce the activity, have students give examples of and arrive at a definition for "symbols." A symbol is a concrete object that represents an idea, belief, value, or other intangible concept. If students have trouble identifying any symbols, ask them what their school team mascot is, what the picture for "danger" is, and so on.

2. Divide the class into small groups and distribute the handout. Have each group label the objects as best they can and then divide the objects into two groups – those that are American symbols and those that are Japanese. Students will probably achieve this through the process of elimination, recognizing the American symbols fairly readily and designating the unfamiliar symbols as Japanese.

3. As a class review the handout, making a two-column list of American and Japanese symbols on the board and labeling each item correctly. If students have not been able to recognize the exact name of the Japanese item (e.g., cherry blossoms as opposed to "flower"), provide this information. You may also wish to provide additional background information about the object. Names and other information are provided in the **Teacher Background Notes** that follow the **Procedures**.

4. Ask students to return to their small groups. Instruct each group to generate a list of adjectives that each symbol in the U.S. column brings to mind. Groups should come up with at least five adjectives for each item. Sample responses are provided in the **Teacher Background Notes**. After the groups have assigned adjectives to each item, instruct each group to pick the one symbol they think best represents the United States, and to be ready with reasons for their choice.

5. Through classwide discussion, consider the adjectives the students have generated for each item. List these on the board. Have each group present and defend its choice for most representative symbol of the United States. Have the class reach consensus on the best symbol.

6. Return students to their groups and have them complete the same adjective assignment for the Japanese symbols. Allow 10 minutes for this assignment.

Activity developed by Ted Kempton.

7. Bring the class back together and list the adjectives on the board. As a large group, compare the types of adjectives assigned to the American and Japanese symbols. Were any of the same adjectives used? Were any opposites used? What differences and similarities between the two nations are implied by the adjectives, and thus, images, associated with the two countries' symbols? For example, symbols such as the American eagle and the Japanese *samurai* and sword may connote similar images of strength and courage. Why might these attributes be common to both countries? Symbols such as the Japanese cherry blossoms and *bonsai* may reflect a value of nature, an emphasis on beauty, gentleness, and miniature, which has no obvious parallel in the American symbols.

8. As an optional follow-through activity, assign pairs of students to research the origin and historical and contemporary significance of the Japanese symbols and prepare a visual display of their findings. A number of publications provide excellent background on the origin and meaning of these symbols, as well as everyday Japanese cultural artifacts. These publications include:

All-Japan: The Catalogue of Everything Japanese. New York: Quarto Marketing Ltd., 1984.

Condon, John and Keisuke Kurata. *What's Japanese About Japan*. Tokyo: Shufunotomo Co., Ltd., 1981.

De Mente, Boye. *Japan Almanac*. Lincolnwood, IL: Passport Books, 1987.

Discover Japan. Volumes 1 and 2. Tokyo: Kodansha International and NY: Harper and Row, 1985.

Teacher Background Notes:

The symbols used in the handout are identified below; possible adjectives and descriptions are also provided.

1. American eagle: strong, powerful, aggressive, courageous, clever.

2. Cherry blossom: beautiful, natural order, transience, rebirth (spring), seasonal, delicate, graceful. In Japan, cherry blossoms, or *sakura*, mark the arrival of spring. They are the Japanese national flower, valued for their delicate and short-lived beauty. In ancient times, *samurai* compared the blossoms to their own lives, since they were expected to die for their lords at a moment's notice.

3. Mt. Fuji: sacred, holy, beautiful, enduring, masterful, harmonious, natural, awesome. Mt. Fuji, the traditional symbol for Japan, was considered sacred until the Neiji Restoration in 1868.

4. Apple pie: wholesome, natural, healthy, reflective of goodness and prosperity.

5. *Samurai*: strong, courageous, aggressive, powerful, loyal, disciplined, selfless, brave, honorable, skillful, patriotic. *Samurai* were the warriors of feudal Japan. Their code of ethics, called *Bushido*, was similar to the code of English knights in the middle ages. *Samurai* were characterized by total loyalty, willingness to give one's life to a cause, honor, discipline, and sacrifice.

6. Uncle Sam: friendly, strong, kind, tough, wise.

7. Coca-Cola: fun-loving, energetic, youthful, vivacious.

8. *Samurai* sword: strong, courageous, aggressive, powerful, loyal, honorable, skillful, patriotic, good, just, honest, righteous. Swords have ancient significance in Japan. In a Japanese creation myth, the sun goddess gave her grandson a sword when he was sent down to rule the earth. During the Japanese feudal period, swords were the symbol of all that the *samurai* warrior represented. More than just a weapon, a sword was believed to have a moral spirit of its own. It was a symbol of justice and goodness. *Samurai* swore on their swords as people of the Judeo-Christian tradition swear on a Bible.

9. Mom/motherhood: kind, warm, good, loving, gentle, care-giving, wholesome.

10. *Bonsai*: tough, resilient, lasting, miniature, natural, graceful, flexible, harmonious with nature. *Bonsai*, or dwarf trees, are an artform in Japan. The growth of the tree is stunted, and the shape is made to conform with the artist's perception of beauty. *Bonsai* create the illusion of large natural objects in a small space.

11. Statue of Liberty: freedom, liberty, home, welcoming, kind, open, strong.

12. Rising sun: Oriental beauty, growing power, the central position of Japan. The sun figures prominently in the Japanese creation myth in which the sun goddess sent her grandson to rule the earth. The Japanese emperor is considered a descendant of the sun.

13. Chrysanthemum: beautiful, natural, delicate, graceful, enduring. The chrysanthemum is the traditional crest insignia of the ruler of Japan.

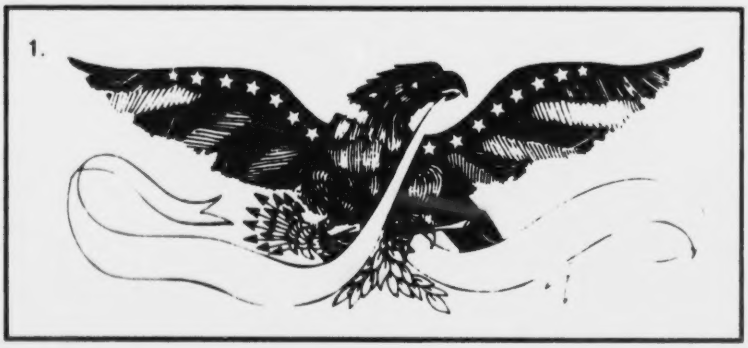
14. Carp kite: Resilient, strong, enduring, ambitious, successful, harmonious with nature. The legendary carp could swim against currents, upstream and even up waterfalls. Because they are a traditional analogy for physical strength, they are used for Boy's Day, now called Children's Day, May 5.

15. Buffalo: strong, tough, enduring, untameable, resilient, powerful, wild.

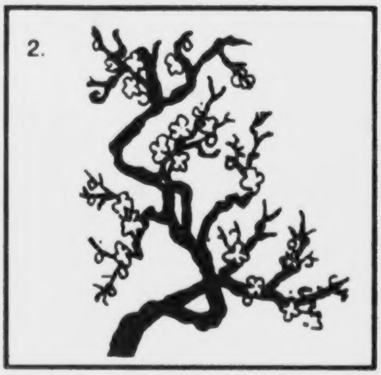
16. Paper crane: enduring, resilient, fortunate, peaceful, beautiful. In Japanese legend, cranes live 1000 years, thus representing long life and good fortune. Traditionally, Japanese believe that folding 1000 paper cranes will insure good health and long life. People in Japan present others with the gift of paper cranes to wish them health.

What Does It Stand For?

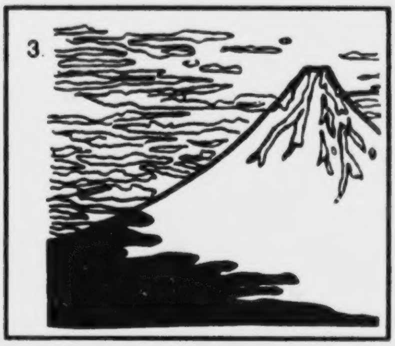
1.



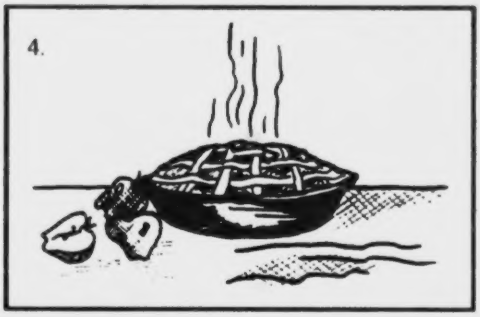
2.



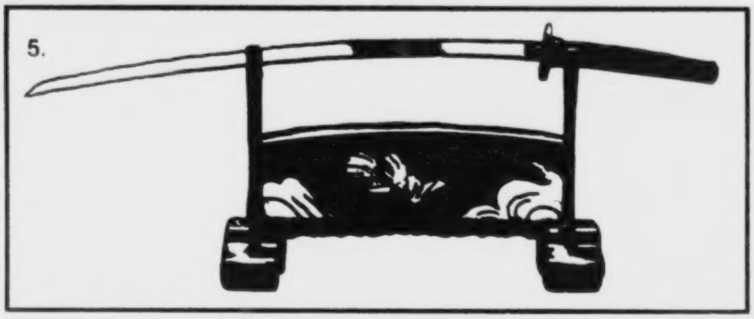
3.



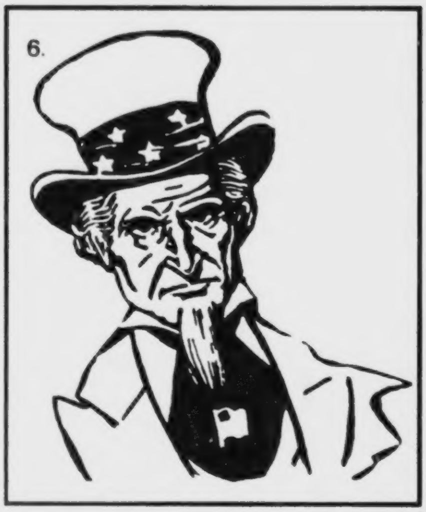
4.



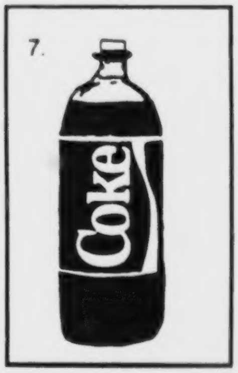
5.



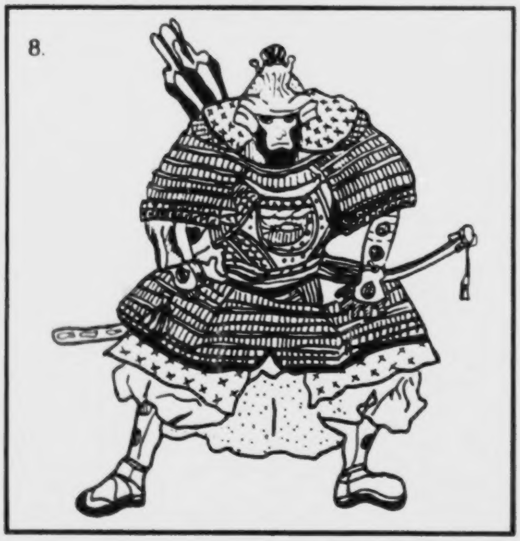
6.



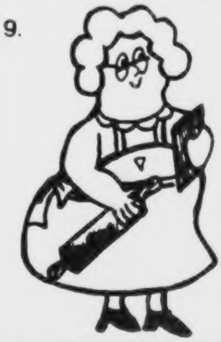
7.



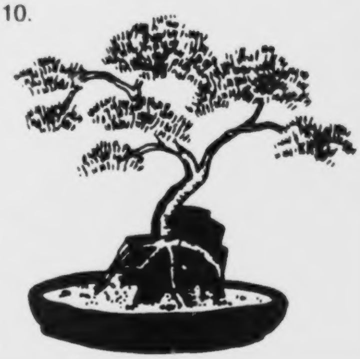
8.



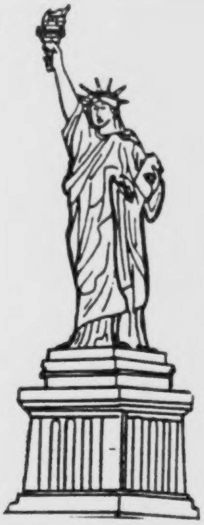
9.



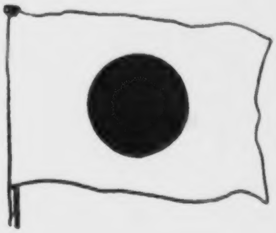
10.



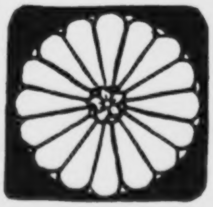
11.



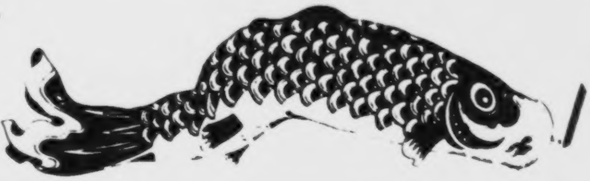
12.



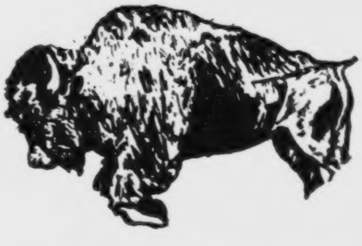
13.



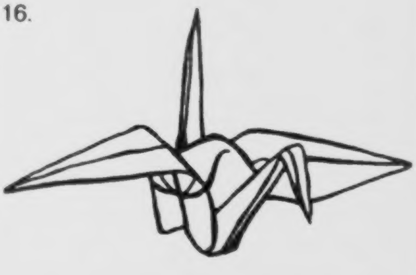
14.



15.



16.



2. CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Introduction:

Students today live in an increasingly interdependent world. Many students have traveled to foreign countries. Their parents may well travel abroad on business. Moreover, students may be introduced to other cultures firsthand through foreign students and families in their schools and communities. It is appropriate, given this increasing interaction, that students develop sensitivity to cultural differences and become aware of how such differences impact cross-cultural perceptions. In this activity, students examine several scenarios in which differences in custom may cause confusion, misunderstanding, or conflict between Japanese and American people. Students discover the influence their own culture has on their perceptions and attitudes toward other people.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Explain misunderstanding resulting from nonverbal and cross-cultural communication.

2. Compare and contrast typical social customs in Japan with those of their own culture.

3. Identify cultural values implicit in everyday customs.

4. Develop an awareness of the cultural lenses through which any society may perceive and evaluate other people and nations.

Grade Level: 7-12

Teaching Time: 1-2 class periods

Material: Copies of Handouts 2-1 and 2-2 for all students

Procedure:

1. Introduce the activity by polling students as to why it might be useful or important for Americans today to understand Japanese culture. When and why might an American need to know about the customs of Japan? In answering, students should consider travel, student exchange, and especially political and economic relations between the two countries. For example, what might be at stake if government officials or important business leaders mistakenly insulted each other because they did not understand the other culture?

2. Explain that students will look at some social interactions that might typically cause problems, misunderstandings, or misimpressions between people from Japan and people from the United States. From these situations, students will generate a list of similarities and differences in the two cultures and will identify possible roots of misunderstanding across cultures.

3. Distribute the four scenarios of cross-cultural communication in Handout 2-1 to all students. Have students read the scenarios either silently or aloud, and formulate answers to the questions about each incident. Alternately, divide the class into four small groups and assign each group one scenario to read and analyze. Each group should be prepared to summarize its assigned scenario and present answers to the questions during classwide discussion.

4. As a large group, consider each scenario in turn. If working with several small groups, ask each group to report on its scenario, and present the group's answers to the four analysis questions:

Activity developed by Lynn Parisi.

- What motivated the Japanese actor to act as he or she did? (What message was intended by the Japanese actor?)
- What attitudes or values appear to be important in Japanese society based on what the Japanese actor did?
- How did the Americans interpret the Japanese's actions? That is, what message did the Americans receive in this scenario?
- With what feelings did the Japanese actor leave this scene?

5. Record student responses on the board. Possible responses are provided in the **Teacher Background Notes.**

6. Ask students to consider the attitudes and values reflected in both the Japanese and American behavior illustrated in the four scenarios. List these on the board in two columns labeled *Japan* and *United States*. The completed list might appear as follows:

Japan	**United States**
Society is more important than individual.	Individuals are as important as groups or society as a whole.
Others are placed before self.	Individuality is respected.
People try not to stand out.	Assertiveness is respected.
Age, experience, higher status are respected.	True opinions are expressed openly.
Being cooperative and supportive of your group is important.	
People know their place.	
People are reserved.	

7. Through class discussion, develop a rationale for learning about Japanese customs and values. Why should each of the following Americans take time to learn about Japan before going to that country?

- Student going for a one-year exchange.
- Businessperson going to negotiate a trade deal with a Japanese company.
- State government official going to develop a sister-city relationship.
- Tourist.

8. Have students apply their rationale through a closing role play or homework activity. Distribute Handout 2-2. Students may be returned to their small groups to pick one of the two situations presented in the handout. Using the knowledge they have acquired about Japanese society and customs, have each group act out what might be expected to happen in that cross-cultural exchange. Alternatively, ask each student to choose one of the situations and, as homework, describe in writing how the situation would unfold.

Teacher Background Notes:

Handout 1

Scenario 1: In Japanese society, one defers one's own needs or wants to those of others. Thus, in Japan, one does not serve him/herself; to do so would put oneself above others. Mr. Suzuki was being a polite Japanese, showing his respect for the others in the group. He always filled the others' glasses but never filled his own glass. He waited patiently, assuming that the other men, operating under the same custom, would fill his glass. In the United States, one person may pour another's drink but would not ignore himself or herself in the process. The Americans probably assumed Mr. Suzuki did not drink and, rather than embarrass him, did not make an issue of his empty glass. Both the Americans and Mr. Suzuki probably left the restaurant confused and wondering. Mr. Suzuki probably thought the Americans were rude or selfish. The Americans probably thought Mr. Suzuki was strange.

Scenario 2: A famous Japanese proverb says that the nail that sticks up gets hammered down. This saying reflects the Japanese value of blending in and getting along with the society at large. Japanese people do not call attention to themselves. In Japanese society, teamwork, cooperation, and consensus are highly valued, as are respect for age, experience, and rank. Aki was motivated by all these Japanese social values and customs as he kept in the background of the student council committee meeting. As a good Japanese-style team member, Aki tried to cooperate with and support other members of the committee as they presented their ideas. The message he intended to convey was that he knew his place and his responsibilities within the group and that he respected the older, more experienced committee members. Aki's customs were at odds with American culture, in which anyone may – and is, in fact, expected to – contribute to a group discussion regardless of status. In the United States people emphasize individuality and self-expression. Expressing opinions and reacting to – even criticizing – others' opinions is normal. The American children on the committee probably perceived Aki not as a polite and good member but as a shy and possibly nonproductive member who was not helping to solve the problem at hand. When Aki quit the student council after one meeting, the students may have assumed he was aloof and did not want to be involved in school government. In fact, Aki was embarrassed at being singled out to express his personal ideas and humiliated at having his idea criticized by his group. Having disappointed the committee, he resigned, reflecting his adherence to the Japanese custom of maintaining group harmony.

Scenario 3: Keiko reacted to her surprise birthday party in accordance with two Japanese customs. First, in keeping with the de-emphasis of the individual in Japan, birthdays are not occasions for special celebrations. As a Japanese, Keiko was surprised and embarrassed at so much attention being focused on her as an individual. As is Japanese custom involving gifts, Keiko thanked the others for her presents, but saved them to open in privacy. That way, her face would not betray her if she did not like the gifts. In Japan gifts are part of a ritual of social interaction and social responsibility. They are accepted matter-of-factly and without fanfare. Moreover, gift giving implies responsibility: the receiver must return a gift in kind. Thus, Keiko probably perceived herself as now under obligation to return a gift to each child who had given her one. The American students probably perceived Keiko as strange, unappreciative, and perhaps rude when she showed so little enthusiasm about the party and refused to open her gifts.

Scenario 4: Teiko slurped her soup in an effort to show her hostess how good she thought the soup was. She was showing Japanese good manners and complimenting her hostess's cooking. The Americans, with very different table manners, were surprised and embarrassed at Teiko's noisy eating.

Handout 2:

Scenario 1: The American boy would probably expect to be treated as a star player, a valuable addition to the Japanese high school baseball team. However, because he is a new player – and not a senior – he might not get to see much action, no matter how good he is. He would probably be expected to take the background, supportive role of a junior member of a Japanese social group. If he did get to play, he would probably be very surprised to find he was not treated as a star but as just one contributing member of the team, no more or less valuable than all the other members. The Japanese believe in team effort, not individual superstars. The nail that sticks up get hammered down.

Scenario 2: Peter would expect to meet his Japanese business counterparts, shake hands, and get down to business. He would probably expect to close the deal quickly and efficiently. The Japanese businessmen, on the other hand, would be quite surprised and perhaps even insulted that the American company sent so young a representative. Unless Peter held a high status equal to the men representing the Japanese company, the meeting might be very short. Furthermore, the Japanese, whose social and business style is indirect, would be surprised at Peter's aggressive style. They would not assume a deal could be made quickly, without additional negotiation within their own ranks. The business meeting would probably fail unless Peter learned the business styles of his hosts very quickly.

CROSS-CULTURAL PERCEPTIONS: FOUR SCENARIOS

Four cross-cultural communication situations between Japanese and Americans are described below. Analyze each situation by answering the following four questions. Record your answers in writing on a separate sheet of paper.

- What motivated the Japanese actor to act as he or she did? (What message was intended by the Japanese actor?)
- What attitudes or values appear to be important in Japanese society based on what the Japanese actor did?
- How did the Americans interpret the Japanese's actions? That is, what message did the Americans receive in this scenario?
- With what feelings did the Japanese actor leave this scene?

Introduction: A Japanese family, the Suzukis, have moved to the United States for a year for business reasons. The father is working in a new office of a Japanese manufacturing firm. The family's two children go to the local public school. The Suzukis read several books about the United States and its people before arriving in this country and were very excited to be here. Despite their preparation, however, several confusing and frustrating incidents occurred during their stay. A similar incident happened to Teiko Hidaka, an exchange student from Japan.

Scenario 1: Early during the Suzuki family's stay in the United States, Mr. Suzuki went out after work with several American businessmen. They went to a small restaurant and ordered a pitcher of beer. As is the custom in Japan, Mr. Suzuki filled the glass of everyone at the table but himself. He left his own glass empty, because in Japan it is very poor manners to serve yourself. The American men at the table looked at Mr. Suzuki in surprise. One asked if Mr. Suzuki didn't want a drink. Mr. Suzuki smiled and nodded, assuming that now someone else would fill his glass for him. The men waited for him to fill his own glass. When he did not, they dismissed it and began to talk. Throughout the night, the Americans continued to fill their own glasses or have them filled by Mr. Suzuki. They assumed that Mr. Suzuki does not drink and left his glass empty.

Scenario 2: Aki Suzuki enrolled as a freshman in the local high school. The students in his homeroom welcomed him and soon elected him to be the homeroom representative in the student council. In the council, Aki was put on a committee to select a school mascot. As a new member of the council and a freshman, Aki did not think it was his place to volunteer his ideas for the mascot. He assumed that younger or newer members of a group should defer to older or more experienced members, as they would in Japan. So Aki assumed the role appropriate to a lower status person in Japan, that of offering support for other good ideas. Finally, after the discussion had gone on for half an hour, a committee member turned to Aki saying, "All you do is compliment other people's ideas. Don't you have any ideas of your own?" Aki offered an idea which was turned down. In Japan, people do not criticize others' ideas. After the meeting, Aki quit the student council.

Scenario 3: Keiko Suzuki's new middle-school classmates were anxious to make her feel comfortable in her new school. When they found out it was Keiko's birthday, they brought her several small gifts, which they presented to her in class. Keiko was very surprised at the excitement the students showed and the gifts they gave her. In Keiko's country, individuality and events that focus attention on individuals are avoided; thus, birthdays are not celebrated as special occasions in Japan. Keiko accepted her presents and thanked the other students matter-of-factly. As is the custom in Japan, Keiko put the gifts away without opening them. She was bewildered and embarrassed when the students excitedly demanded that she open the presents. She simply repeated her thanks and said she would open the gifts at home.

Scenario 4: On one of her first evenings as an exchange student in an American home, Teiko Hidaka was excited to find that soup was being served with dinner. Anxious to please and flatter her host mother, Teiko lifted her bowl to her mouth and slurped her soup, a Japanese custom indicating that the food is very delicious. Teiko was hurt and confused when her host sister giggled and her host mother looked startled and disapproving.

MAKING PREDICTIONS ABOUT CROSS-CULTURAL EXCHANGES

The paragraphs below present cross-cultural exchanges that might take place between Japanese and Americans in Japan. Consider what might be expected to happen as the situations described below unfold.

Scenario 1: A 17-year old American boy went to Japan for a one-year exchange program. At home in Minnesota, he was a star baseball player on his high school varsity team. He was a strong pinch-hitter with a good home run record. During his junior year in Japan, he tried out for and made the high school ball team.

What might happen—and why—at his first game? Describe or present in a role play what the American's expectations and behavior might be, how the Japanese students on his team would act and react, and how this cross-cultural situation would develop if neither side knew much about the customs of the other.

Scenario 2: Although he is only 28 and just out of business school, Peter is a competent and ambitious businessman. His firm respects him for his no-nonsense, aggressive style. The firm sends Peter to Japan to negotiate a new business contract with a Japanese corporation.

What might happen—and why—at Peter's initial meeting with representatives from the Japanese firm? Describe or present in a role play what Peter's expectations and behavior would be, how the Japanese businessmen would act and react, and how this cross-cultural business meeting would develop if neither side knew much about the customs of the other.

3. YOU ARE WHAT YOU EAT:
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOOD, ENVIRONMENT, AND CULTURE

Introduction:

A country's "cuisine" – what the people like to eat and how the food is prepared – can be a useful tool for learning about that country. The types and varieties of foods that a country produces reflect geography and environmental factors; they are also an indication of the society's standard of living. In this activity, students consider the relationship between food, environment, and culture in Japan through an analysis of Japanese dishes.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Identify characteristics unique to Japanese foods, using data about Japanese specialty restaurants.

2. Analyze the relationship between food, culture, and environment, through consideration of several Japanese foods.

Grade Level: 6-9

Teaching Time: 2 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handouts 3-1 and 3-2 for all students; copies of Handout 3-3 for each group of four students; poster paper, markers; library books on Japanese foods and Japanese cookbooks (optional)

Advance Preparation: Before beginning the activity, teachers should acquaint themselves with Japanese foods by reading the material contained in the handouts.

Procedure:

1. Begin this activity with a large-group brainstorming session about Japanese foods. Allow the class several minutes to list Japanese foods with which they are familiar. Their list can include ingredients, well-known main dishes, beverages, methods of preparation, utensils, Japanese foods that they have themselves eaten, names of Japanese restaurants in their community, and so on. Record students' ideas on poster paper. Post this around the room for reference throughout this activity.

2. Next, ask students to identify the sources of their information or impressions about Japanese foods. Is their information based on direct experiences in eating Japanese foods; television, magazine, or newspaper advertising; friends' opinions; previous study of Japan; or other sources?

3. Distribute Handout 3-1, and read the first section, "You Are What You Eat," aloud with students. Before reading the remainder of this handout, allow a few minutes for students to provide examples from the United States that will support the premise that a country's preferences in food reflect both culture and environment. Possible focus questions might include the following:

- What are some of the factors that determine what we in the United States eat and enjoy?
- How does the popularity of many different ethnic foods reveal something of cultural diversity within our country?
- Do students associate certain holidays and family celebrations with specific foods? Are certain sports associated with specific foods?

Activity developed by Jacquelyn Johnson.

- How does environment influence the foods people in different parts of the United States eat (i.e., New England seafood, pork and beef in the Midwest, grits in the South, and so on)? Although many of these regional variations may be hard to distinguish today because of improvements in transportation and food distribution systems, nonetheless, evidence of these variations can still be found. Certainly, the variation in prices and availability of certain foods can be used to demonstrate this point.

4. Allow students ample time to finish reading Handout 3-1. Practice aloud the Japanese expression, *itadakimasu!*

5. To further introduce the relationship between food, environment, and culture, distribute Handout 3-2, "The Special Character of Japanese Foods." Read this handout aloud with students. To check for student understanding, ask several students to explain in their own words what does, in fact, make Japanese food special. What important values and attitudes are reflected in the way the Japanese prepare food? Students should mention aesthetic, or artistic, appearance of food; the harmony of food and nature; and the importance of preserving the natural essence of foods. Students who have eaten Japanese foods can also be asked to elaborate on any of these three important characteristics. If books on Japanese foods or Japanese cookbooks are available, pictures of selected foods can be shown.

6. Next, explain that students will learn about eight different types of Japanese foods and the specialty restaurants that serve them. Divide the class into groups of four students each. Distribute Handout 3-3. Assign a group leader to randomly distribute *two* descriptions to each student in his/her group. Be sure to explain to students that each member of the group has different information. Group members will have to depend upon one another to obtain information about all eight types of Japanese restaurants.

7. Within groups, each student will be responsible for preparing two brief presentations that include information about ingredients, food preparation, and general atmosphere of the two restaurants described in his/her handout. Explain that students will not be allowed to read from their handouts. Allow students time to read the materials and to think of a way to share the information about the two restaurants in a brief presentation for other group members. If students need help getting started, ask them to create a two-minute TV commercial for their restaurant or make a guessing game out of the food served at their restaurant. Or suggest some of the following sentence stems to use as starters:

"I've eaten this kind of Japanese food before..."
"I've heard of this kind of Japanese food before..."
"It seems to me that the atmosphere in my restaurant makes it..."
"I've never eaten this kind of food before..."
and so on.

8. Before students begin their presentations, refer to the three characteristics of Japanese food described on Handout 3-2. Instruct students that, as they listen to each other's presentations within their groups, they should record examples of Japanese foods that fulfill each of the three characteristics. Specific foods may be cited more than once.

9. To set the stage for intra-group presentations, tell students to begin with the phrase, *itadakimasu!* Allow about 10 minutes for presentations, circulating from group to group as needed. Students should be allowed to ask questions, although given the limited information provided on Handout 3-3, students may have questions that presenters cannot answer. Japanese cookbooks and other library resources can be used as reference materials to discover more about Japanese foods.

10. As a large group, debrief this part of the lesson, using the notes that students made on Handout 3-2 for reference. Ask students which foods seem to be prepared to be as pleasing to the eyes and ears as to the mouth? Which foods reflect a harmony with nature? In preparing which foods is preserving natural flavors important? The American and Japanese fast-food restaurants can be used as points

of contrast to the three characteristics of Japanese foods given on Handout 3-2. Possible student responses are listed below:

- Aesthetically pleasing/use of art forms: *sushi, sukiyaki, shabu-shabu, kaiseki, soba.*
- Harmony with nature/colors, textures, and so on: *kaiseki, sushi.*
- Preserving natural flavors: *sushi, sukiyaki, shabu-shabu, tempura, yakitori, okonomiyaki.*

11. Have students draw further conclusions about the relationship between food, environment, and culture. As a group, generate a list of items from the presentations that struck students as unusual. Possible responses are listed below:

- Eating raw fish.
- Slurping noodles.
- Serving small portions of chopped or sliced meat.
- People living behind restaurants.
- Diners sitting on the floor.
- Customers cooking their own food.
- Take-out noodles delivered on motorcycles.
- Diners flipping their own pancakes.
- Small size of restaurants.
- Beef as a luxury food.
- Feeding beer to cows.
- Gas burners built into tables.

12. Ask students to consider why the items on their list might be unusual to them but not to Japanese people. Refer to the opening paragraph in Handout 3-1 and ask students to again consider the premise about food and culture. Explain that many of the aspects they found unusual about Japanese foods do, in fact, reflect something about the Japanese culture and environment. Examples are given below:

- Japan is an island nation. Thus, fish is a staple food in the Japanese diet.
- Beef is a luxury food in Japan. Japan is a small, mountainous country. With little usable land, grazing cattle takes up too much space that could be used for more concentrated and productive vegetable cultivation.
- Japanese use small portions of meat, whether beef, pork, fish, or chicken. Cut-up slices of meat make the portions go farther. Again, this reflects economic fact of life in Japan: there is little space for food production in the country. Consequently, food is expensive and is stretched whenever possible.
- Japan is a very densely populated nation, and space is at a premium. Small restaurants, stand-up restaurants, and people living behind their restaurants reflect the careful use of space.

With further thought, students should realize that other findings they originally thought unusual represent more of a cultural continuity than a contrast:

- Home delivery of noodles via motorcycle is similar to pizza deliveries in their own communities.
- Slurping hot noodles and blowing on noodles both involve using air to cool food.
- We do select ingredients to go on our pizzas; it could be even more fun to actually prepare our own pizza.

Follow-Up Activities:

1. Students can research major health problems and/or causes of death in Japan and the United States. Which, if any, of these are diet-related? Students should find that the Japanese suffer more from stroke than do Americans, based largely on greater intake of salt in the diet, dating back to the use of salt as a preservative for fish, vegetables, and so on; Americans suffer more from heart disease because their intake of cholesterol from meat and dairy products is much higher.

2. Using menus collected from Japanese restaurants, students can develop a list of basic ingredients in Japanese cooking. Students should find out where these ingredients come from – are they grown in Japan or imported from other countries? Students can create a map to illustrate where the foods on which Japan relies come from.

3. Students can visit local supermarkets to check the availability of Japanese foods in their community. They should use cookbooks to develop a list of 20-30 typical Japanese foods they can look for during their supermarket visits.

4. Students can conduct a survey about the popularity of Japanese food among students in school or in their community. Students might compare their results with those of a survey recently conducted by the National Rice Distribution Association of Japan, which found that more than 90 percent of the Americans polled believed that Japanese foods are nutritious and nonfattening. The ten most frequently eaten Japanese foods selected by those polled are listed below; foods not included in this lesson are described following the percents.

tempura – 85 percent

chicken teriyaki and beef teriyaki – 83 percent (chicken or beef marinated in a sauce of soy, sugar, and *sake* and broiled in a grid iron)

sukiyaki – 74 percent

sushi – 67 percent

sashimi – 67 percent

tofu – 69 percent (solidified bean curd made from liquid from crushed soy beans)

udon, soba – 43 percent

yakitori – 43 percent

nori – 39 percent (crisp dried seaweed)

Survey reported in: Wojtan, Linda S. *Japanese Food: A Mirror of History.* Bloomington, IN: East Asian Outreach Center, 1982.

JAPANESE FOODS: REFLECTIONS OF CULTURE

You Are What You Eat

You really can't know a culture without knowing something about what the people in that culture eat. What you eat is a part of your culture. Popular foods often reflect the environment of your country or region. Foods can tell something about the spirit and traditions of your country.

The purpose of this lesson is to "unlock" some of the cultural barriers we may have about Japanese food. By looking at food, we can learn about Japanese culture and understand more about the Japanese people.

Dining Out in Japan

One aspect of everyday life common to many people in the United States and Japan is dining out. Tokyo has a resident population of more than 10 million people, as well as another million or so daily commuters. Tokyo alone has more than 45,000 restaurants. In some districts in Japan's largest cities (Tokyo, Osaka, Nagoya) it is not unusual to find as many as 10 restaurants on a single block.

How does one select a restaurant given all these choices? One important consideration is the food specialty. Within the general category of Japanese cooking and food preparation are as many as 18 major types of Japanese specialty restaurants. Food preparation and cooking techniques in these restaurants have been refined and perfected. The ingredients used in Japanese foods are also distinctive to particular specialty restaurants. As in the United States, regional variations in ingredients and preparation can also be found throughout the country. Whereas in the United States a particular cuisine may be identified by country or ethnic origin, in Japan each style of preparing foods has a specialty restaurant unto itself.

Different groups of customers dine at certain types of restaurants in Japan; among these groups are businessmen, young people, families, and those who prefer more formal and traditional Japanese meals when dining out. The prices of foods vary considerably.

Restaurant Customs

Several items and customs reflect the traditions of restaurant hospitality in Japan. First, many restaurants and snack shops feature a white, painted pottery cat in the window. The cat, with one paw raised in welcome, is called *Maneki-Neko*, or "beckoning cat." According to tradition, the cat's raised paw indicates that visitors will come, so it is considered good luck for restaurant owners.

The traditional sign of welcome to a restaurant in Japan is the *noren*, a dark blue split curtain with white Japanese characters hung in the doorway. If the *noren* is hung out over the doorway, the restaurant is open for business; if tucked inside, the restaurant is closed.

In Japan, chopsticks, or *hashi*, are the standard eating utensils. Chopsticks are well-suited to the bite-sized pieces of meat and vegetable typical of most Japanese dishes. Restaurant guests are usually given an *oshibor*, a dampened cloth used to cleanse the hands and face. It is also relaxing and refreshing—a nice way to begin.

Japanese people begin their meal by saying, *itadakimasu*, which means, "I shall begin eating." This expression is used to show appreciation for being given food. The spirit of this phrase is similar to *bon appetit*, which we sometimes say before beginning a meal. When finished eating, the Japanese say, *Gochisosama*—that was good!

THE SPECIAL CHARACTER OF JAPANESE FOODS

Besides being healthy and nutritious, many Japanese foods have a distinctive character that is different from foods eaten in many other countries. The characteristics given below represent the standards of good Japanese cooking and meal presentation. The master chef of a particular Japanese food has refined and perfected a particular style, and is accorded much respect by his patrons. In this way, he is as much an artist as a tea ceremony master, a calligraphy teacher, a *kendo* (martial art) expert, or a *kabuki* (traditional drama) performer.

1. The presentation of Japanese meals should be **aesthetically pleasing**. Foods are arranged so that color, texture, and shape complement one another. A number of writers have said that Japanese foods are prepared for the eyes and ears as much as for the nose, mouth, and stomach. In serving many foods, even the choice of plates and bowls becomes an important part of the meal.

2. Food preparation and presentation is an artform. Like so many other traditional artforms in Japanese culture, a deliberate effort to represent **harmony with nature** and the current season is very important.

3. The **natural flavor** of the foods must be preserved and enhanced. The freshest ingredients are selected and are cooked for only a short period of time (in some cases, not cooked at all). Very few spices are used.

JAPANESE SPECIALITY RESTAURANTS

Description 1: Sushi Shops

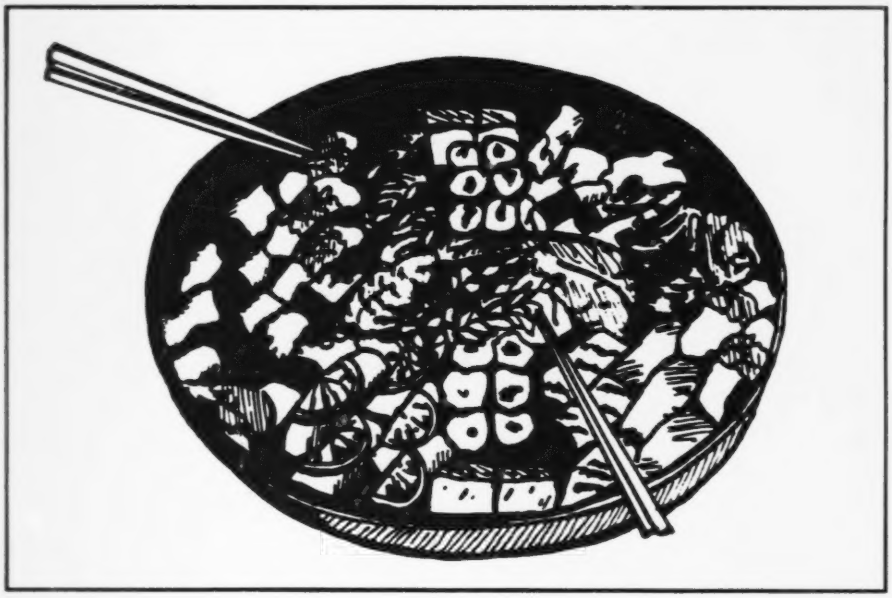
Sushi is one of the most popular foods in Japan. In Tokyo alone there are probably 10,000-15,000 *sushi* shops. *Sushi* is somewhat expensive because it must be made with the very freshest fish possible and takes great skill to create.

Sushi is prepared by pressing fresh raw fish into cold rice mounds that have been seasoned with vinegar and sugar. The Japanese characters for *sushi* mean "vinegared rice." The most popular kind of *sushi* in Japan is *nigiri-zushi*, a rather large bite-size mound of rice topped with a slice of fresh fish and a bit of *wasabi* (Japanese horseradish).

A typical *sushi* restaurant has a long wooden counter where customers sit and converse with the chef. They select ingredients from a refrigerated glass case where filets of fish and a variety of shellfish and seaweed are displayed.

The expertise of the professional *sushi* chef is much respected by his customers. He knows, for example, the correct season for certain fish. Like fruit, fish must be taken at the right time of year. As an apprentice (a training status that can last as long as six years), he learned how to create rice perfect in texture and taste. He knows that the *wasabi* must be freshly grated and the fish must be at its freshest—ideally the final cuts should be made just before the *sushi* is assembled.

Almost half of a sushi shop's business can be comprised of take-out orders. The customer phones the shop and usually orders a *noriawase* (a pre-determined selection of various *sushi*). In a short time, a boy on a bicycle or motorcycle delivers the order in lacquer trays or boxes, which the customer will return later.



Description 2: Sukiyaki and Shabu-Shabu Restaurants

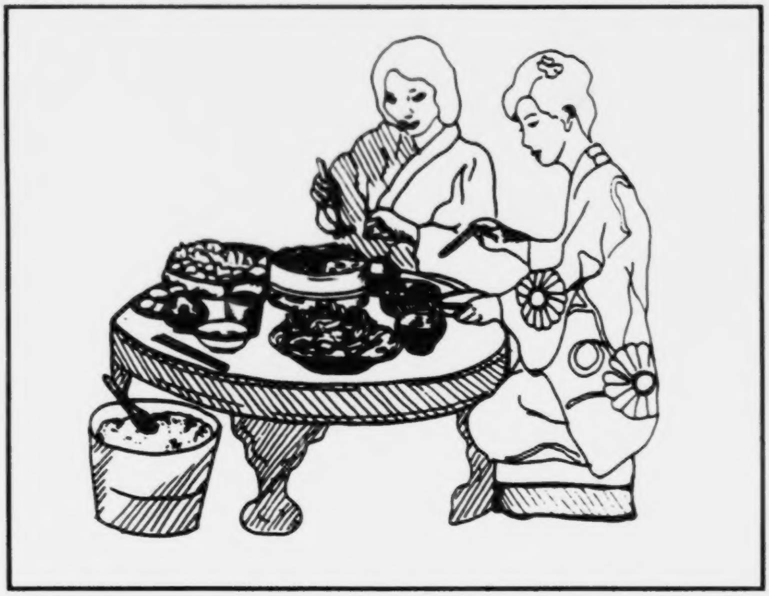
These restaurants developed from the Western custom of eating meat. Because beef is expensive in Japan, *sukiyaki* and *shabu-shabu* are luxury dishes.

Sukiyaki is cooked at a table equipped with a gas burner. The meal begins with an artistic display of the ingredients: thinly sliced marbled beef and delicately cut vegetables perfectly arranged on a large platter. Typical vegetables used in *sukiyaki* are scallions, mushrooms, *tofu*, and bamboo shoots. Portions of beef and vegetables are then placed in a shallow pan full of a broth made of soy sauce and *saké* (Japanese rice wine). The items cook and simmer in the pan for several minutes. Each diner is given a raw egg to break into his/her bowl to use as a dressing for the hot meat and vegetables.

Sometimes referred to as Japanese fondue, *shabu-shabu* is similar to *sukiyaki*. A copper or brass pot with a chimney is placed in the center of the table. A diner uses chopsticks to dunk paper-thin beef and delicately prepared vegetables into the pot for a few seconds. Then the diner dips the beef or vegetables into a sesame sauce just before eating. Flat noodles boiled in the remaining broth or the broth itself (drunk as soup) is usually the last course of a *shabu-shabu* meal.

In finer restaurants where *sukiyaki* and *shabu-shabu* are served, world-famous *Kobe* beef is prepared. This special beef is produced from cattle that are massaged daily and fed a diet of beer. Through a special procedure, they are even protected from mosquitoes.

The atmosphere at *sukiyaki* and *shabu-shabu* restaurants is quiet and somewhat formal. Yet one can distinguish the sounds and smells of bubbling broths. Indeed, the name *shabu-shabu* reflects the sound of swishing meat in the broth.



Description 3: Kaiseki-Ryori

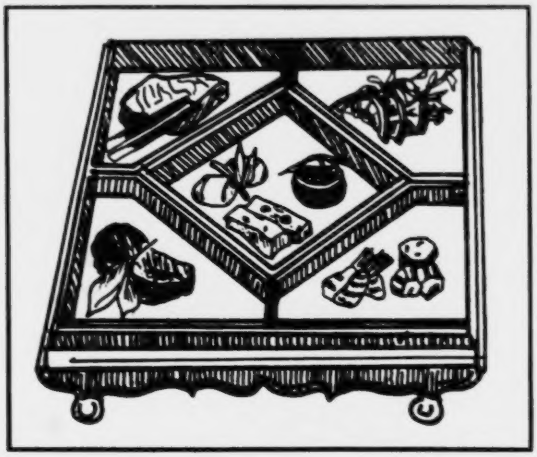
Kaiseki restaurants set the artistic standard for Japanese cooking. *Kaiseki* is a traditional cuisine that is very much connected to religion, seasons, and nature.

Centuries ago, a small minimal meal developed from the tea ceremony, emphasizing the theme of gathering together. For the past five centuries, *kaiseki* chefs have passed down their knowledge of these traditional Japanese foods. A meal of a *kaiseki-ryori* includes the season's finest offerings.

A *kaiseki* meal reflects the great importance in Japanese culture accorded to harmony and nature. In many ways, a *kaiseki* meal can be a communion with nature. In appearance, the food served at a full-course meal reflects the shapes found in nature. The artform of cutting, peeling, and "sculpting" foods that *kaiseki* chefs have perfected is called *mukimono*. The contrasting elements of color, flavor, and texture are all reflected in the presentation of foods. All courses are served on handcrafted pottery and ceramics of various shapes and textures, each carefully chosen to represent the spirit of the current season in Japan. Thick, heavy dishes are chosen for winter; light, thin pottery for summer.

When a diner orders a full-course meal, he or she is sure to get the best seasonal food available in Japan. The main service begins with *gohan* (rice), the symbol of life, and clear *miso* (bean paste) soup. *Sashimi* (slices of raw fish) and a clear broth with herbs associated with the season usually follow. The main entree, which might be charcoal-broiled fish, is served next. The closing service includes pickled vegetables to cleanse and refresh the mouth, and sweets or fruit to prepare the mouth for the bitter green tea that marks the end of the meal. As in the tea ceremony, green tea (*ocha*), a frothy liquid made from whipping powered tea and water, is served in a bowl.

The atmosphere is tranquil at a *kaiseki-ryori*, even if the restaurant is hidden away between Tokyo skyscrapers. In some restaurants, a *koto* (traditional Japanese stringed instrument) is played for guests.



Description 4: Tempura Shops

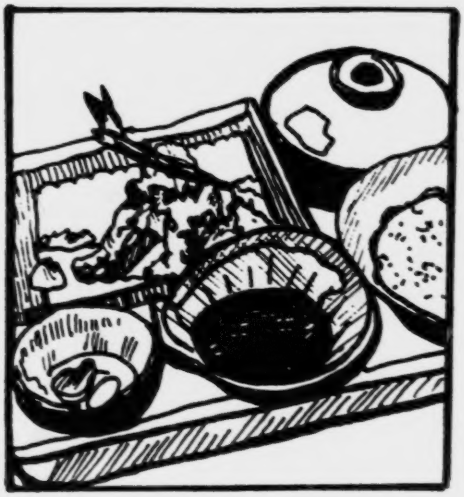
Tempura consists of chunks of fresh fish and vegetables lightly batter-coated and deep-fried. Typical *tempura* foods are shrimp, carrots, smelt, mushrooms, eggplant, and eel. *Tempura* is served by the chef from the smallest item to the largest in an effort to preserve the customer's appetite.

Customers at *tempura* shops usually sit at a counter and talk with the chef as he fries each item. Food is ordered item by item from the menu, which is posted on the wall.

The chef deep-fries the items in hot oil. When cooked, each individual item is placed in front of the customer on a sheet of white rice paper. The customer dips each piece of *tempura* in a dressing called *tentsuyu*, a mixture of soup, sweet sake, soy sauce, grated radish, and ginger.

The expertise of *tempura* chefs is well known in Japan. It has been said that the best chefs can accurately measure the temperature of the boiling oil by feeling the pressure it exerts on a chopstick. Some can even fry ice cream.

Tempura restaurants usually have a slated sliding door. Many also have a fish pool and a small Japanese garden.



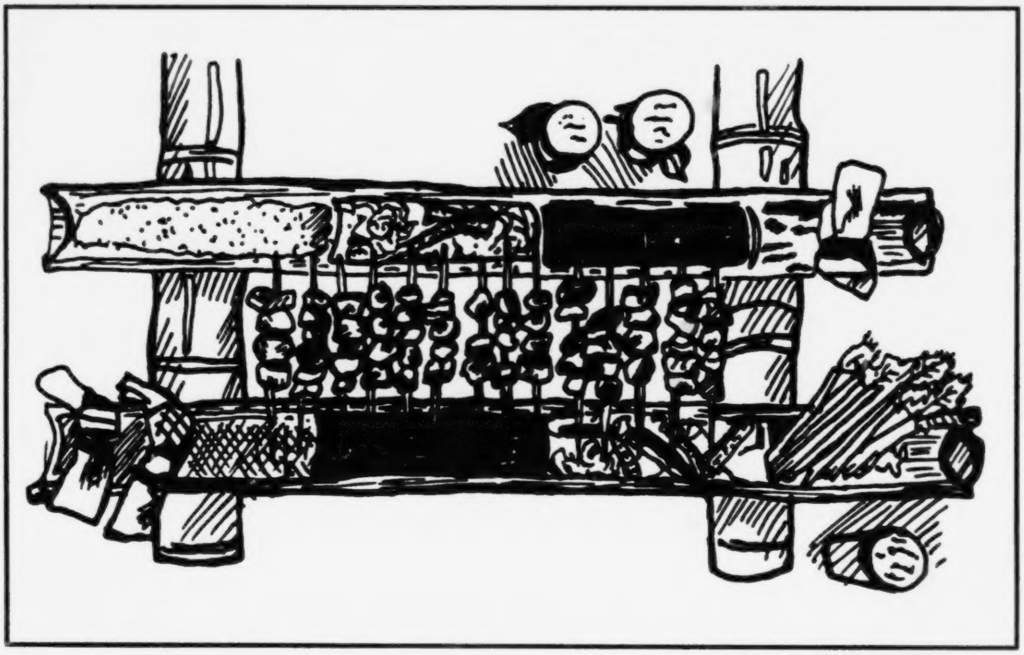
Description 5: Yakitori Shops

Yakitori is one of the most popular and well-known snack foods in Japan. It consists of several chicken cubes, mushrooms, leeks, or sweet peppers grilled on a bamboo skewer over charcoal. Good *yakitori* is crisp on the outside and tender on the inside. *Yakitori* reflects the popularity of grilling in Japan. The Japanese believe that such open-flame cooking preserves the natural flavor of foods.

Customers order *yakitori* by pointing to a display of all possibilities in front of the charcoal grill. The chef usually dips the skewer of meat and vegetables into a sweet soy sauce three times before serving it to the customer.

Most *yakitori* shops, which advertise by hanging a large red paper lantern outside, are quite small. Some only have a counter; others are stand-up or take-out shops. Still others can be as small as cubicles, with seating for five or six people, leaving other customers to sit on crates outside the restaurant.

Yakitori shops cater to the after-work crowd. In the evenings they fill up with Japanese "salarymen" (white-collar workers) stopping off for a snack before going home. A *yakitori* shop is a place where friends gather. *Yakitori* is also popular at baseball games.



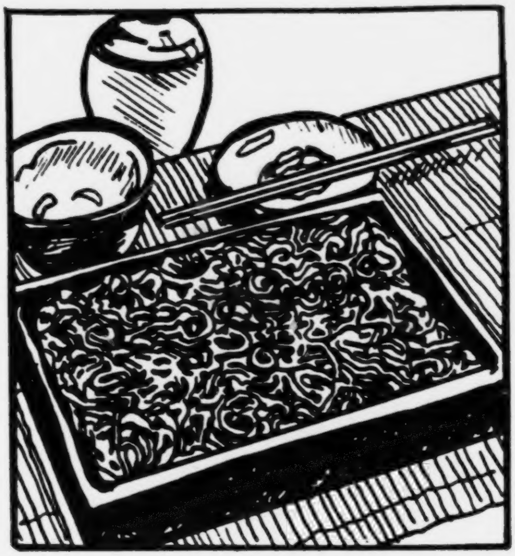
Description 6: Soba-Ya and Udon-Ya*

Soba are long brownish noodles made from buckwheat flour. *Soba* are generally served in two styles: *kake-soba* is served in a bowl of broth and condiments; *mori-soba*, the most popular cold *soba*, is served on a bamboo rack in a lacquered box and then dunked in a cold broth with onions and Japanese horseradish.

Udon are thick wheat noodles that are long and wide. *Udon* is usually served in a large bowl of hot broth. Other ingredients—meat slices, shrimp, vegetable pieces—are artistically arranged on top of the noodles and broth. *Soba* and *udon* taste different in every restaurant, since the owners all develop their own special techniques and recipes.

The Japanese slurp their noodles somewhat loudly as they eat. With the hot versions of *soba* and *udon*, people cool their noodles with a loud sucking sound as they take in air. It is considered impolite to cool food by blowing on it. The hot soup that remains after the noodles are eaten can then be consumed directly from the bowl.

Soba-ya and *Udon-ya* are small restaurants specializing in noodle dishes. Most of these shops have a display of plastic food in the front window showing all the selections available to customers. Food in these shops is inexpensive; hence, they are very popular at lunch time. Many of these shops are family-run businesses that have been continued through several generations. Often times, families live behind the noodle shop. Near stations there are many stand-up noodle stalls for people in need of a quick lunch. Most noodle shops also offer take-out food, using bicycles and motorbikes equipped with unique springing hangers that keep the noodles from sloshing around and spilling.



---

* *Ya* means shop in Japanese

Description 7: Okonomiyaki-Ya*

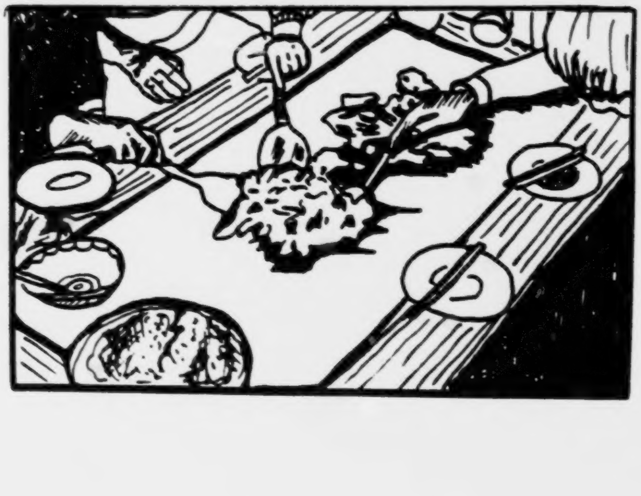
Sometimes referred to as "do-it-yourself pizza," *okonomiyaki* resembles a large pancake more than a pizza. A thick griddle cake containing meat and seafood, this dish originated in Osaka after World War II.

The interaction of diners in cooking the *okonomiyaki* makes this kind of meal a fun, social affair. Perhaps that is why *okonomiyaki* restaurants are especially popular among young people. These restaurants usually have a long counter with a gas hot plate or griddle. Individual tables that can seat from four to six people are furnished with gas hot plates, either built into or placed in the middle of the table.

Customers select main ingredients from the menu posted on the wall. Typical main ingredients include: *tofu* (bean curd), beef, clams, oysters, ham, pork, noodles, shrimp, and squid. If shrimp is chosen, the waitress brings a bowl filled with all the ingredients to prepare an *ebi* (Japanese for shrimp) *okonomiyaki:* batter, cabbage, onions, ginger, shrimp, and a raw egg. The waitress turns on the gas griddle and prepares the surface with oil.

Next, the diners mix the ingredients in the bowl and pour the contents on the hot griddle to cook. Spatulas are provided to press the batter flat. Large brushes are used to "paint" sauces on the cooking pancake. Just before the *okonomiyaki* is done cooking on one side, fish shavings (*katsui*) and seaweed flakes (*aonori*) are sprinkled on to the pancake. Then it is ready to be flipped, sometimes with great flair, using two spatulas.

When the *okonomiyaki* is finished cooking, the waitress turns off the gas. The *okonomiyaki* is then cut into sections by the diners. *Okonomiyaki* is also sold by street vendors.



---

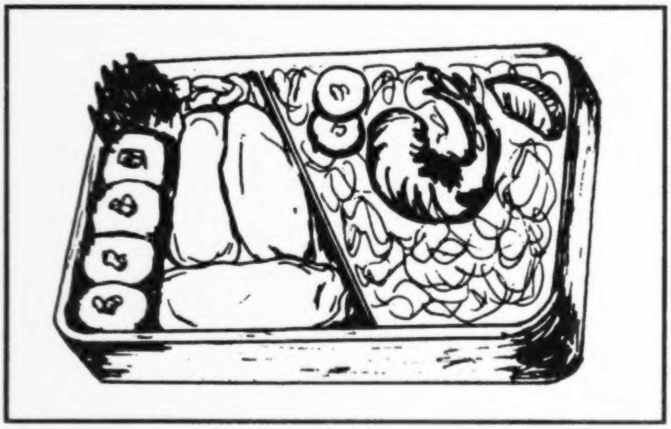
* *Ya* means shop in Japanese

Fast-Food Restaurants: American and Japanese

Years ago, lunch in Japan might have involved walking home for fish and rice or buying a *bento*, a box lunch consisting of rice wrapped in seaweed, smoked fish, and pickled vegetables. This was before the American fast-food industry was adopted and adapted by Japan.

To promote American fast foods, advertising and marketing campaigns were developed inviting the Japanese people to experience a "cultural adventure" with the West. The campaigns must have worked because today Japanese people are waiting in lines for hamburgers, fried chicken, doughnuts, pizza, hot dogs, and pancakes. Kentucky Fried Chicken came to Japan in 1970 and today has over 400 outlets throughout the country. In 1971 the first McDonald's restaurant opened in Tokyo's famous Ginza district. Today there are over 400 McDonald's outlets throughout Japan. Shakey's Pizza, Mr. Donut, and several other American fast-food chains have also come to Japan with much success.

The Japanese have also developed their own fast food industry. First Kitchen, Lotteria, and Love are well-known fast-food restaurants that serve hamburgers and fries, as well as the more traditional rice, fish, and noodles.



4. JAPANESE HISTORY IN A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

Introduction:

This activity enables teachers to integrate historical information about Japan into the required social studies curriculum of intermediate and middle-school grades: state history, U.S. history, and world cultures/world history. In this activity, students compare historical events and developments in Japan with events and developments in their country or Europe.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Create accurate timelines comparing U.S. or European history with Japanese history for the years 500-1950, or any period within this time span.

2. Research and report on a particular aspect of a culture.

3. Appreciate themes and events common across cultures as well as those unique to a specific culture.

4. Describe ways in which different regions or countries of the world have interacted over time.

Grade Level: 4-8

Teaching Time: 2 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handout 4-1 (U.S.) or 4-2 (European) for all students; copies of Handout 4-3 for all students; butcher paper for two timelines (length of classroom wall); markers or crayons

Advance Preparation: Arrange with the school media specialist for one day of library research time.

Procedure:

1. Begin the lesson by summarizing what the class has learned about the current area of study, specifically U.S. or European history. Point out that it's easy to forget that other countries and cultures were developing in the rest of the world at the same time that important events were occurring in the area under study.

2. Introduce the idea of a timeline as a tool for studying a certain period of time or for comparing events in two places at the same time. Focus on the particular time period under study or on an overview of history from earliest time to the mid-20th century. Elicit discussion from the students about events they are aware of during these years in their current area of study using such questions as:

   - Do you think similar events were happening in other parts of the world?
   - Do you think some areas of the world were more or less technologically advanced than others? Why or why not?

3. Explain to students that they are going to test their hypotheses about developments around the world by learning about and then comparing what was going on in Japan during the period of time they have been studying in U.S. or European history.

4. Have students make blank timelines on butcher paper and hang them on the wall. Timelines should be divided into 100-year blocks from 500 to 1950 AD (or any specific time block of your choice) and should be placed one under the other to make comparison easier.

Activity developed by Sally Stoker and Marcee Kutner.

5. Using texts or other classroom resources, have the class fill in the timeline for the country or area under study (the United States or Europe), including all important events, discoveries, and developments that have been covered in class during the unit. Sample timelines for the United States and Europe are provided in Handouts 4-1 and 4-2.

6. Next, distribute the Japanese history timeline, Handout 4-3, and allow students time to look over the events listed. Individually or in pairs, have students pick particular timeline items they would like to research.

7. Students should then spend one class period conducting research in the library to find enough information with which to describe their events on the timeline. They may choose to convey information they have obtained through pictures, drawings, or written paragraphs. Additional class or homework time may be needed to complete presentations and to attach each presentation to the Japanese history timeline.

8. After the timeline has been completed, lead the class in discussion of the similarities and differences in events in the two focus regions. Compare timing, themes, trends, and so on. Some sample questions for a discussion of timelines on U.S. and Japanese history are:

- Did each culture have an organized religion? Compare them.
- When, if ever, did the two countries share a similar form of government?
- When did the two countries first interact? What prolonged the interaction?
- When did interaction between the two countries seem to increase? How can students account for this?
- Is there evidence that events or conditions spread from one country to another? Explain.

9. As a debriefing exercise, discuss the value of having diverse cultures in the world. What would the world be like today if all cultures had developed simultaneously?

U.S. HISTORY TIMELINE

150-900	Early Indian civilizations, including Mayan Empire in Central America
1492	Columbus's voyage to America
1607	First permanent English settlement in America founded at Jamestown
1619	House of Burgesses established in Virginia
1620	Massachusetts Bay Colony founded
1619-1730	Founding and development of original 13 colonies
1776	Declaration of Independence; United States of America established
1781	British surrender; end of Revolutionary War
1787	Constitution of the United States written
1787-1848	Expansion of United States from Atlantic to Pacific
1846-48	Mexican-American War
1849	California Gold Rush
1853	Trade with Japan opened by Commodore Perry
1860-65	Civil War
1850-1900	Industrialization and urbanization in United States; immigration to United States by Asians, including Japanese
1880s	Asian immigration stopped by U.S. law
1898	Spanish-American War; U.S. colonization in Asia
1914	Start of World War I in Europe
1917	United States entry into World War I
1918	End of World War I; world power status for United States
1924	Passage of immigration law restricting Japanese immigrating to United States and denying immigrants full citizenship
1929-39	Economic depression in the United States
1941	United States entry into World War II following Japanese bombing of Pearl Harbor
1945	Atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki by United States
1945	End of World War II
1945-1951	U.S. occupation of Japan

EUROPEAN HISTORY TIMELINE

200-400	Rise of Christianity
449	Angles, Saxons, and Jutes conquer Britain
542	Europe ravaged by bubonic plague
751	Spread of paper-making from China to Europe
774	Charlemagne's conquest of Italy
793	Start of Viking raids
800	Charlemagne crowned emperor in Rome; beginning of new Western (later Holy Roman) empire
900	Start of feudalism in Europe
1066	Norman conquest of England
1095-1291	Crusades
1350	Start of Renaissance
1455	Gutenberg Bible printed
1492	Columbus's voyage to America
1498	India reached by Vasco da Gama
1500-1600	New World claimed by European countries
1588	Spanish Armada defeated by English
1470-1700	Scientific Revolution
1688	Glorious Revolution in England
1750	Beginning of Industrial Revolution
1789	French Revolution
1804	Napoleon crowned Emperor of France
1848	Revolutions in France, Austrian Empire, Italy, Germany
1869	Opening of Suez Canal
1870	Franco-Prussian War and Beginning of Age of Imperialism
1914	Start of World War I in Europe
1919	Treaty of Versailles
1929	World economic depression
1933	Hitler's rise to power
1939	Start of World War II in Europe
1945	World War II ends in Europe
1947	Marshall Plan
1955	Warsaw Pact/Cold War

JAPANESE HISTORY TIMELINE

200-500	Earliest Japanese sculptures, called haniwa
500	First written literature in Japan
607	Buddhist religion introduced into Japan from Korea
645	Features of Chinese government adopted by Japan; central government controlled by an emperor
700	Buddhist temples built in Nara
794	Japanese capital city moved from Nara to Kyoto
900	First university founded at Kyoto
930	Civil war
1020	Japan's great early novel, *Tale of Genji*, completed
1185-1300	Great estates became powerful; lords of estates hired bands of warriors, called *samurai*, to protect their lands; *shogun* as leaders
1542	Portuguese traders opened trade with Japan
1603	Tokugawa Ieyasu unified Japan; named *shogun*
1614	All whites expelled from Japan (except Dutch traders in Nagasaki)
1700s	Development of urban Japan; rise of puppet plays, *kabuki*, floating world block prints
1853	Commodore Perry's arrival in Japan to open trade with United States
1868	Meiji restoration; emperor restored as leader of Japan. End of feudalism. Start of moderization
1889	Constitutional monarchy – emperor with absolute power
1894	Conquest of Korea
1904	Japanese victory in Russo-Japanese War; Japan a world power
1930	World depression hits Japan
1937	China invaded by Japan
1941	Pearl Harbor bombed by Japan; entry of Japan into World War II
1945	Atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki
1945	End of World War II
1945-1951	U.S. occupation

SECTION II

JAPANESE LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

5. LEARNING THE ALPHABET WITH JAPANESE ARTIFACTS

Introduction:

In this ongoing activity, primary-grade students develop an awareness of and interest in a foreign culture, in this case Japan, by associating artifacts from that country with their own alphabet.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Identify cultural artifacts of Japan.
2. Describe certain elements of Japanese culture.
3. Appreciate similarities and differences between their own culture and another.

Grade Level: K-1

Teaching Time: Ongoing throughout alphabet study

Materials: Japanese cultural artifacts collected by the teacher; possible artifacts are listed in the **Teacher Background Notes**

Procedure:

1. Introduce students to each letter of the alphabet by showing an artifact that begins with the same letter, for example, A = *aisu kurimu*; B = *bento* box; C = carp kite; and so on. Discuss these artifacts with students and allow them to ask questions, handle the items, and so on. You may introduce two artifacts per week or per day, depending on your individual class schedule.

2. After introducing all 26 letters, distribute a sheet presenting a complete list of the letters. Assign each student or small groups responsibility for several letters. Have students or small groups locate the artifacts that represent their letter(s) from a collection of artifacts that you have assembled beforehand on a table in the center of the room.

3. Have students or groups try to match their Japanese articles to similar items from their own culture—for example, *aisu karimu* = ice cream; *bento* box = lunchbox; carp kite = windsock or kite. Have students bring in the American items from home, if possible, and make comparative show-and-tell presentations. Students may tell the class which letter each artifact (both Japanese and American) represents and then comment on similarities and differences between the American and Japanese items—how they look, how and when they are used, and so on. Explore with students why some Japanese words sound very much like English words. (Because the Japanese borrowed and adopted English words to describe some items that were introduced to their country by the United States or England and for which they had no word)

Follow-up Activities:

1. As an alternative to step 3, distribute an alphabet list with five to ten letters missing. Have students or groups identify which letters are missing from the list. Then have students locate the artifacts representing these letters from the artifact table.

2. Have students create a letter/picture alphabet display for the room, either using the Japanese artifacts or the Japanese artifacts and their American equivalents (for two alphabet sets). Each child should draw one letter and color a picture on a piece of construction paper.

Activity developed by Ann Rasich.

Teacher Background Notes:

A. *aisu kurimu* (ice cream)
B. bullet train, *bunraku* (puppet theater), Buddha, bamboo, *bento* box (lunch box), *bonsai* (dwarf trees)
C. calligraphy, carp (fish) kites, castles, *cha* (tea)
D. *daruma* doll (round limbless doll)
E. emperor
F. Mt. Fuji, *furoshiki* (scarf used as a gift wrap or satchel carrier), *futon* (floor matress), *furin* (windchimes), *fudebako* (pencil box)
G. *geta* (wooden shoes), Girl's Day (doll festival), *Go* (chess-like game)
H. *haiku* (three-line poetry), *hashi* (chopsticks)
I. *ikebana* (flower arranging)
J. Japan, judo
K. *kendo*, karate (martial art), *kendama* (game), *kanji* (one form of Japanese writing), kimono, *koto* (stringed instrument)
L. Land of the Rising Sun (as on flag), lacquerware
M. *miso* (bean paste) soup, *meishi* (calling cards), *mochi* (rice flour sweets)
N. *Noh* (Japanese drama) mask
O. *obi* (kimono sash), *origami*, *ofuro* (bath)
P. *pachinko* (Japanese pinball), pagoda
Q.*
R. rice, *ramen* (noodles), rock garden
S. *samurai* (warriors), *sumo* (wrestling), *sake* (wine), *shakuhachi* (flute), *soroban* (abacus/counting beads)
T. *tabi* (special socks for use with *geta*, Japanese thonged shoes), *tatami* mat, tea ceremony, *tsukemono* (radish pickles)
U. *udon* (noodles), *uchiwa* (fan), *ukiye-o* (block prints)
V.*
W. wedding dress, wedding ceremony
X.*
Y. *yen* (Japanese money), *yukata* (house robe)
Z. *zori* (sandals)

---

* sound does not exist in Japanese language.

Many inexpensive Japanese artifacts may be purchased in Oriental or Japanese grocery or variety stores. Examples are carp kites, Japanese green tea, bamboo products, *hashi* (chop sticks), wooden shoes, and so on. Other items can be made by hand – examples are calligraphy, *haiku*, flag, and so on.

Several excellent sourcebooks for descriptions and pictures of many of the items listed above are:

All-Japan: The Catalogue of Everything Japanese. New York: Quarto Marketing Ltd., 1984.

Condon, John, and Keisuke Kurata. *What's Japanese About Japan*. Tokyo: Shufunotomo Co., Ltd., 1981.

De Mente, Boyd. *Japan Almanac*. Lincolnwood, IL: Passport Books, 1987.

Discover Japan. Volumes 1 and 2. Tokyo: Kodansha International and New York: Harper and Row, 1985.

6. KANJI: ONE KIND OF JAPANESE WRITING

Introduction:

Many of the world's writing systems are based on alphabets other than the Roman alphabet, on which the English language is based. In this activity, students explore the derivation of *kanji*, the basic Japanese writing system.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Describe the basic Japanese writing system, *kanji*, and its development.
2. Recognize that writing systems, like other customs and artifacts, are a reflection of the culture in which they are developed.
3. Appreciate the diversity, complexity, and logic of a writing system other than their own.

Grade Level: 4-9

Teaching Time: 1-2 class periods

Materials: Sets of pictograph and *kanji* cards (duplicated and cut from Handouts 6-1 and 6-2) for each group of five students; copies of Handouts 6-3 and 6-4 for all students; *kanji* sheets for room display

Procedure:

1. To introduce the activity, ask students to draw a simple picture that represents an object, concept, or idea. For example, they might draw a picture of a book, representing that object, or a skull and crossbones, representing danger.
2. Have students exchange pictures to see if their ideas were adequately represented through the pictures. Following the exchange, ask the following questions to promote class discussion:
   - Were you able to understand other classmates' pictures?
   - Which was more difficult to convey or understand, a representation of a thing or an idea?
   - What kind of words would be very difficult to express through pictures? (some adjectives, adverbs, articles, differences in tenses)
   - Do you think it would be possible to develop an entire language from picture-words, or pictographs?
3. Give a brief explanation of the Japanese writing system as follows:

> The Japanese writing system is very complex. Japanese children actually must learn three different writing systems. The first system is called *kanji*. This system was borrowed and adapted from China and is made up of more than 10,000 characters, or pictographs.
>
> The two other writing systems, *hiragana* and *katakana*, are each systems of 48 characters. These two systems are similar to the Roman system of writing that we use in the United States because they have a limited number of characters. Each character represents a syllable. Characters are com-

---

Activity developed by Mina Temby and Reny Sieck.

bined in various ways to create words based on sound. The 48 syllable characters in the *hiragana* and *katakana* alphabets were originally developed from *kanji* characters. However, now it is difficult to look at a *hiragana* character or a *katakana* character and see any similarity to the *kanji* character on which it was modeled.

One very interesting part of the Japanese written language is that the two alphabets, *hiragana* and *katakana*, are used for different kinds of words. *Hiragana* is used only to spell words of Japanese origin; *katakana* is used only to spell words of foreign origin. Thus, every Japanese student has a big job in learning three different systems of writing. But he or she also can look at a word and know right away whether it was originally a Japanese word or a word borrowed from the language of another country.

Explain to the students that in this activity, they will look at examples of the original Japanese writing system, called *kanji*, which is also the basis for the other two.

4. Divide the class into groups of five students and distribute a packet of pictograph cards (from Handout 6-1) to each group. Explain that each of these cards contains a pictograph, or picture-word. Have the groups spend five minutes identifying what each pictograph represents. Review the answers in class: (1) fish, (2) mountain, (3) moon, (4) river, (5) man, (6) tree, (7) sun, (8) fire, (9) field.

5. Again in small groups, have the students look at the *kanji* characters in Handout 6-2. Ask groups to try to match *kanji* characters with the original pictographs. Review the answers with the class: (A) moon, (B) man, (C) tree, (D) river, (E) mountain, (F) field, (G) fire, (H) moon, (I) fish. As a class, discuss how the pictographs changed over the years. Do they look more or less like the actual objects they represent? Are they easier or harder to draw/write?

6. Distribute Handout 6-3, explaining that these *kanji* characters show how characters or pictographs have been combined to make other words. The first *kanji* character is a field on top of a person. What meaning can students attribute to this character? (farmer). Using what they know or can guess, have students identify the meaning of the remaining two characters. (two trees = forest; several people = group)

7. As a homework assignment or activity for a second day of classwork, distribute Handout 6-4 and have students test their ability to read *kanji*. Answers to the questions are as follows: (1) G, mouth; (2) C, rain; (3) A, moon; (4) B, above, on; (5) H, below; (6) D, man; (7) J, mountain; (8) K, river; (9) F, sun; (10) E, eye; (11) I, tree.

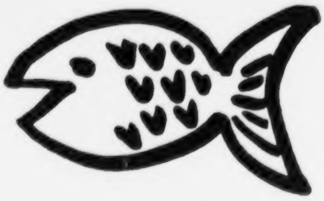
Follow-up Activities:

1. Have students write letters to other classmates using only pictographs.

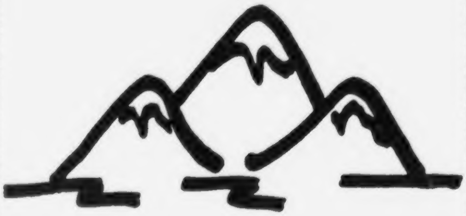
2. Have students create a character to represent themselves.

PICTOGRAPH CARDS

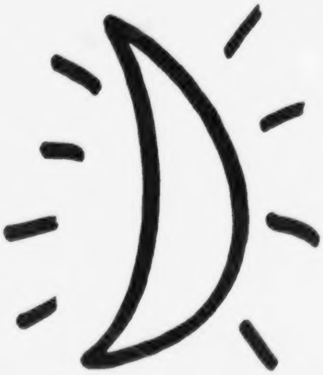
1.



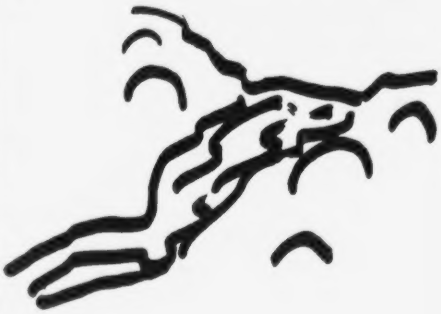
2.



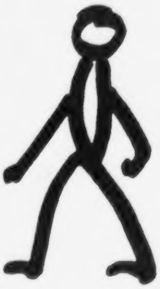
3.



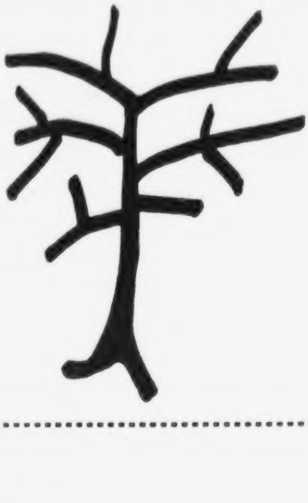
4.



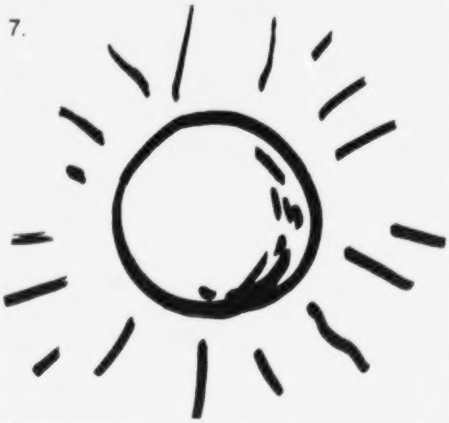
5.



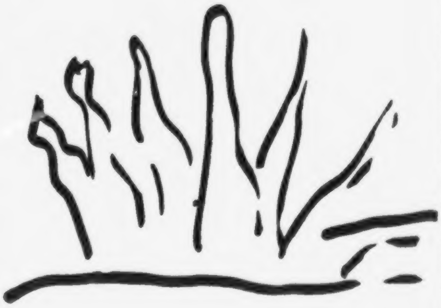
6.



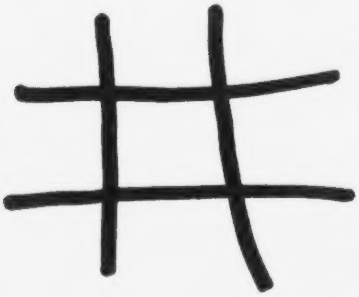
7.



8.



9.



KANJI CARDS

A.

日

B.

人

C.

木

D.

川

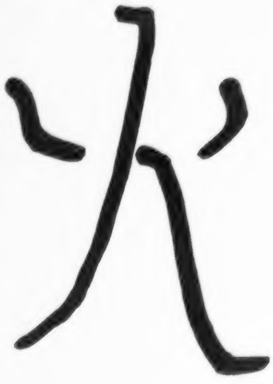
E.

山

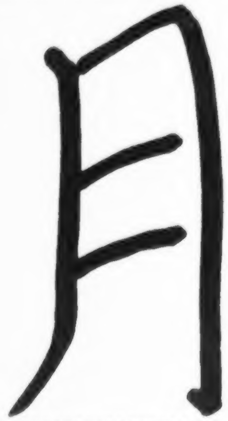
F.

田

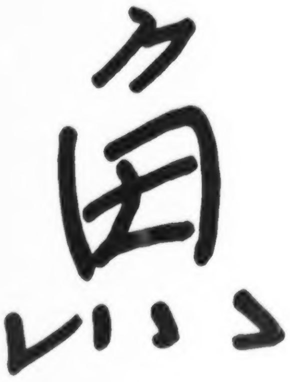
G.



H.



I.



KANJI FOR EXPERTS

Using the simple *kanji* characters you have learned, try to figure out what each of these more complex characters means.

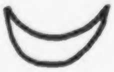
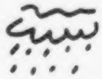
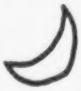
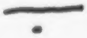
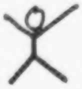
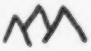
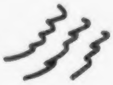
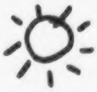
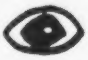
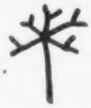
1. 男 ____________________

2. 林 ____________________

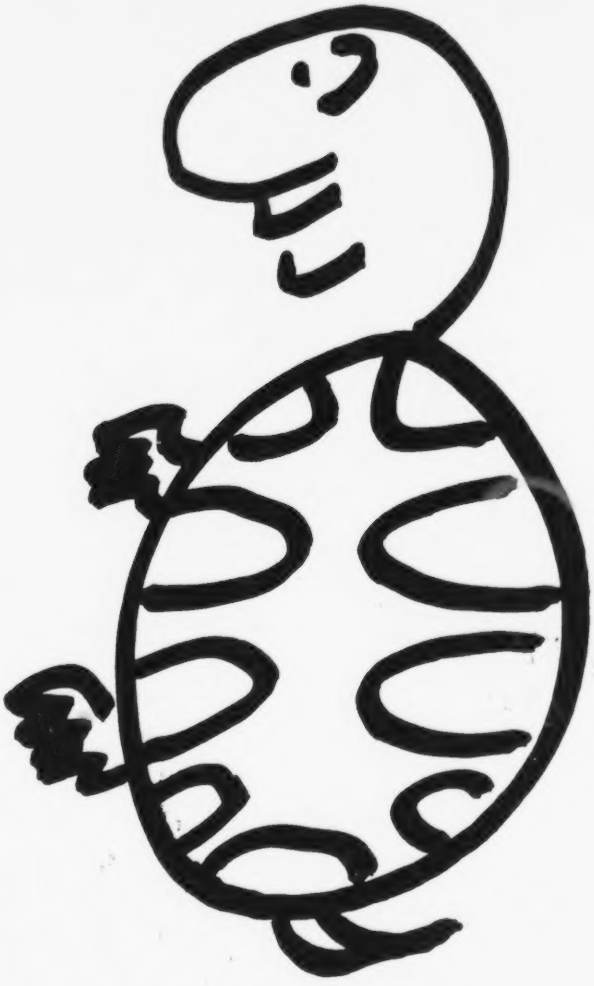
3. 众 ____________________

READING KANJI

The examples on the left show how original *kanji* characters may have looked several thousand year ago. Try to identify each symbol and write in the meaning in the blank space provided. The right side of this handout shows modern *kanji* characters. Try to match the original symbols with the modern *kanji* and put your answer to the left of the number.

G	1.		means	mouth	A.	月
____	2.		means	____________	B.	上
____	3.		means	____________	C.	雨
____	4.		means	____________	D.	大
____	5.		means	____________	E.	夕
____	6.		means	____________	F.	日
____	7.		means	____________	G.	口
____	8.		means	____________	H.	下
____	9.		means	____________	I.	木
____	10.		means	____________	J.	山
____	11.		means	____________	K.	川

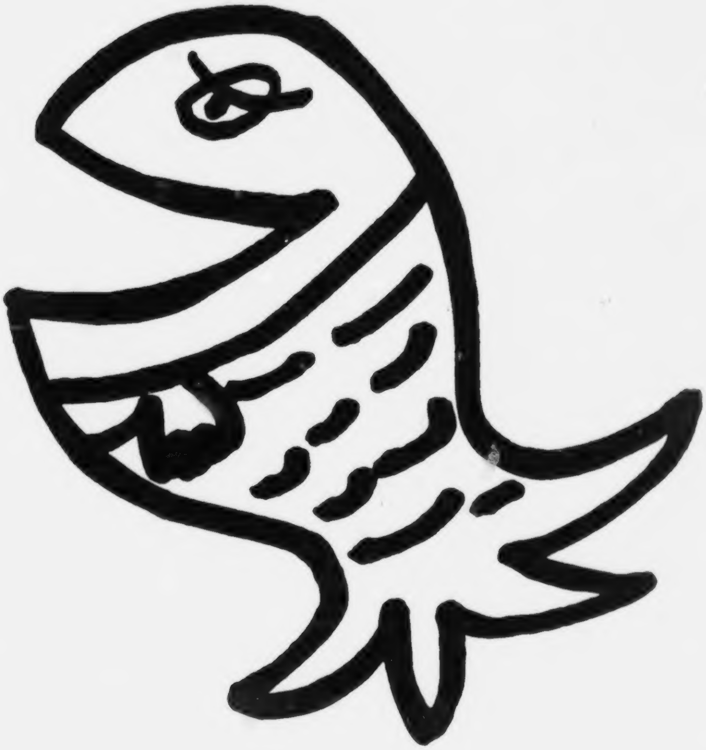
DISPLAY



亀

TORTOISE

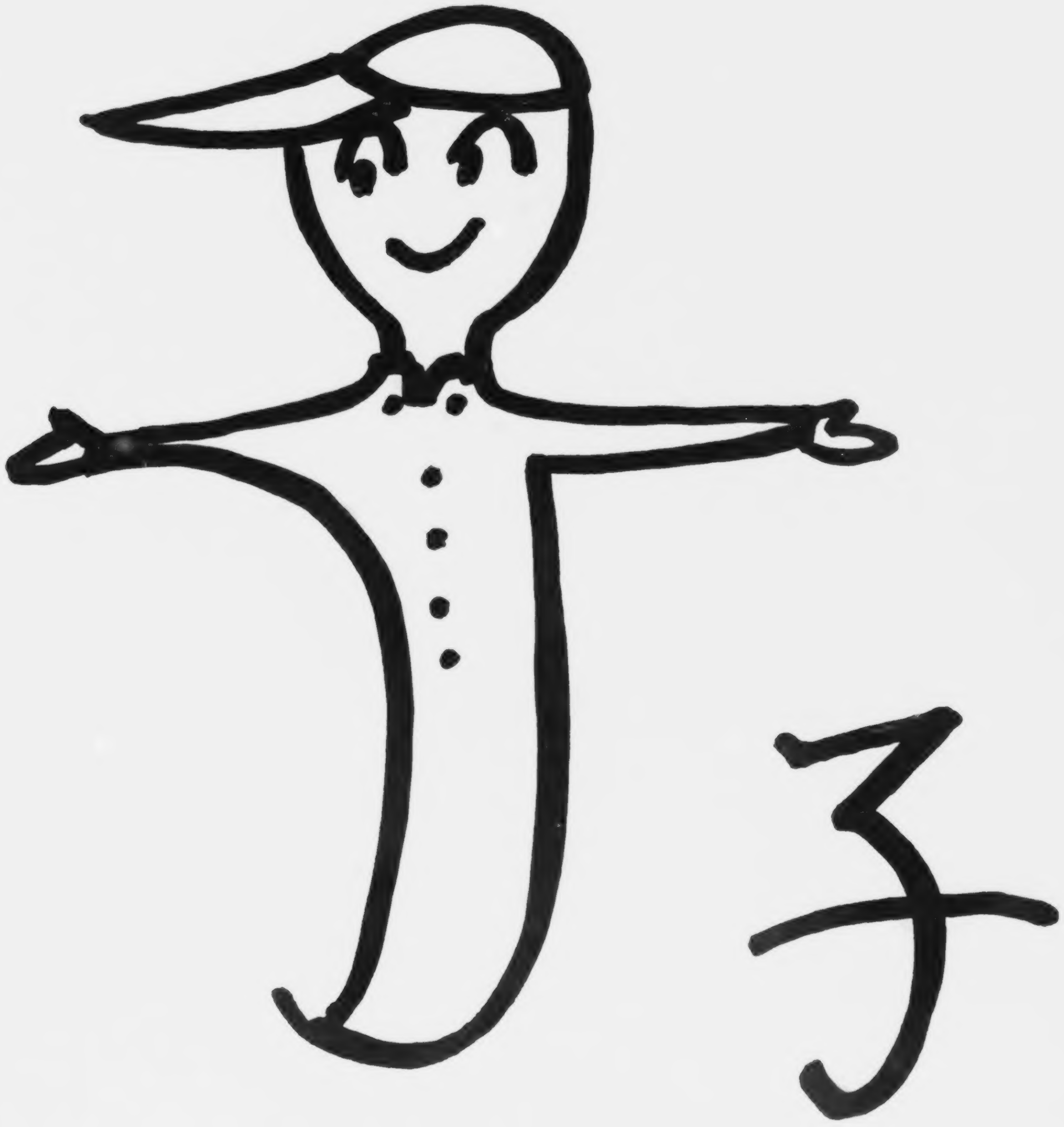
DISPLAY



魚

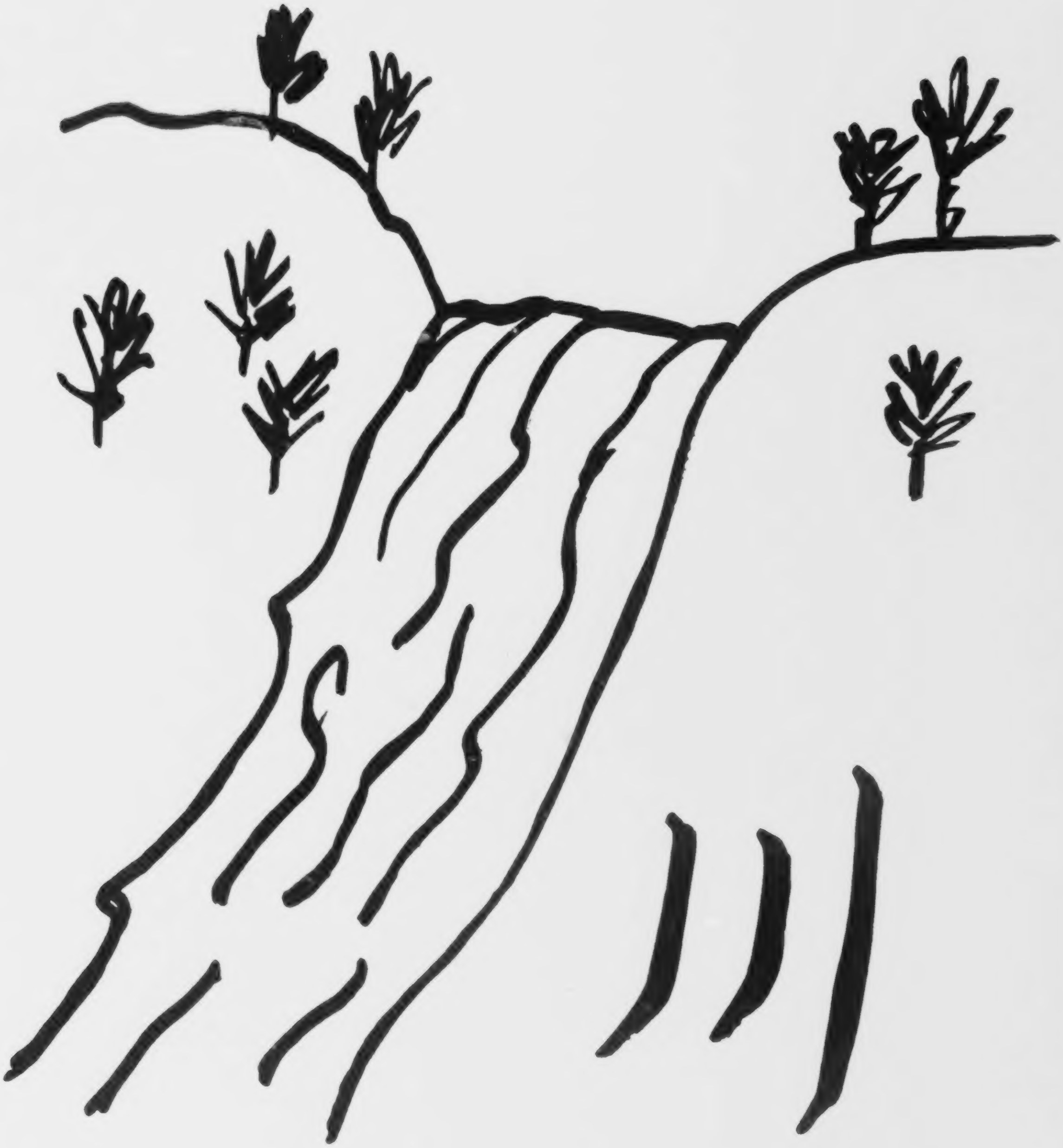
FISH

DISPLAY



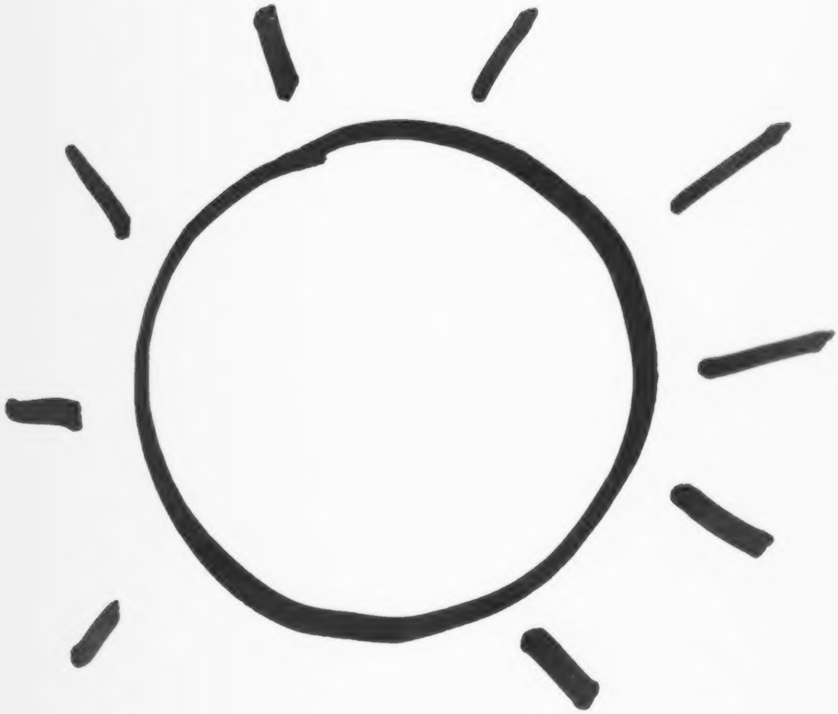
CHILD

DISPLAY



RIVER

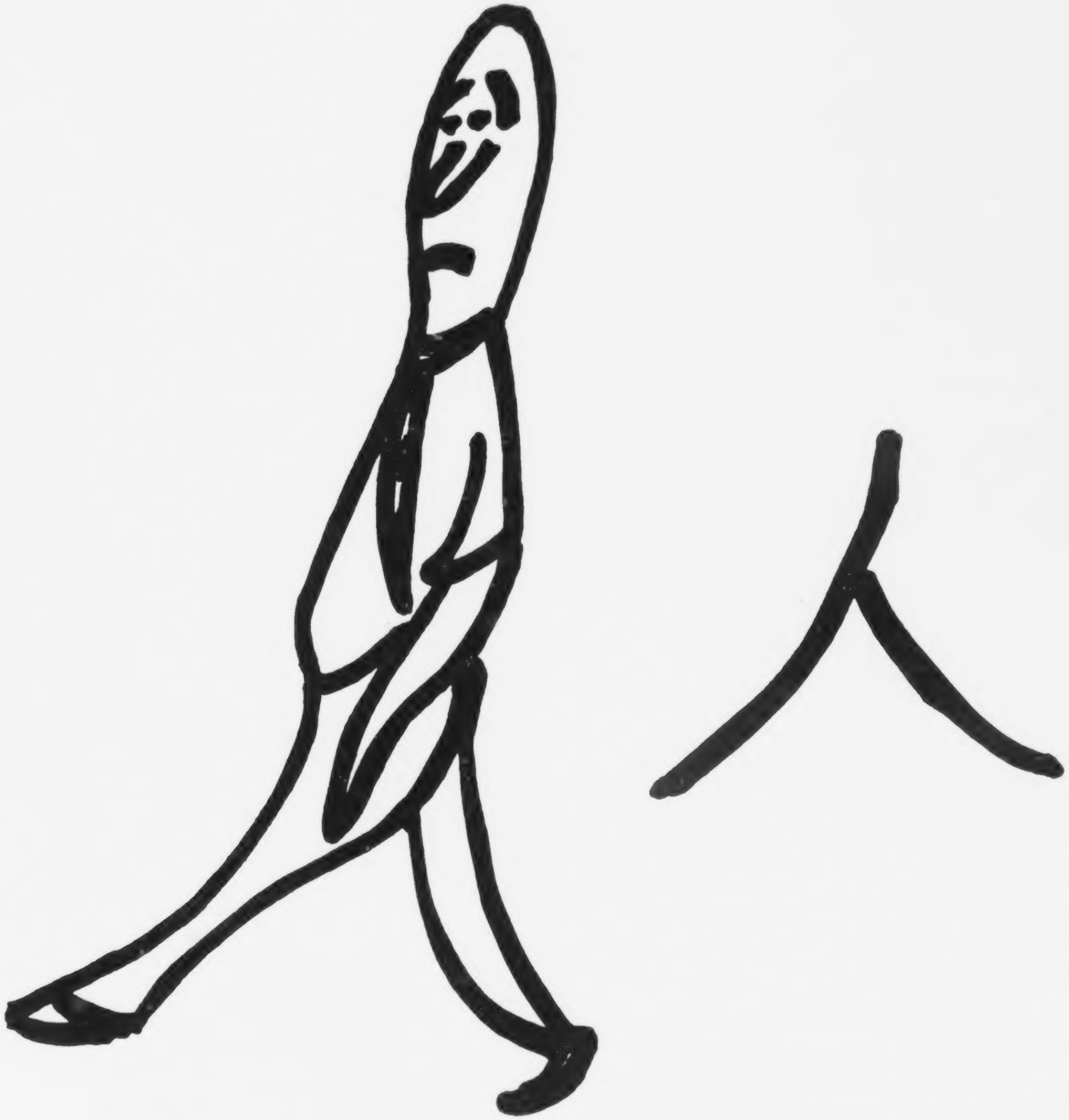
DISPLAY



日

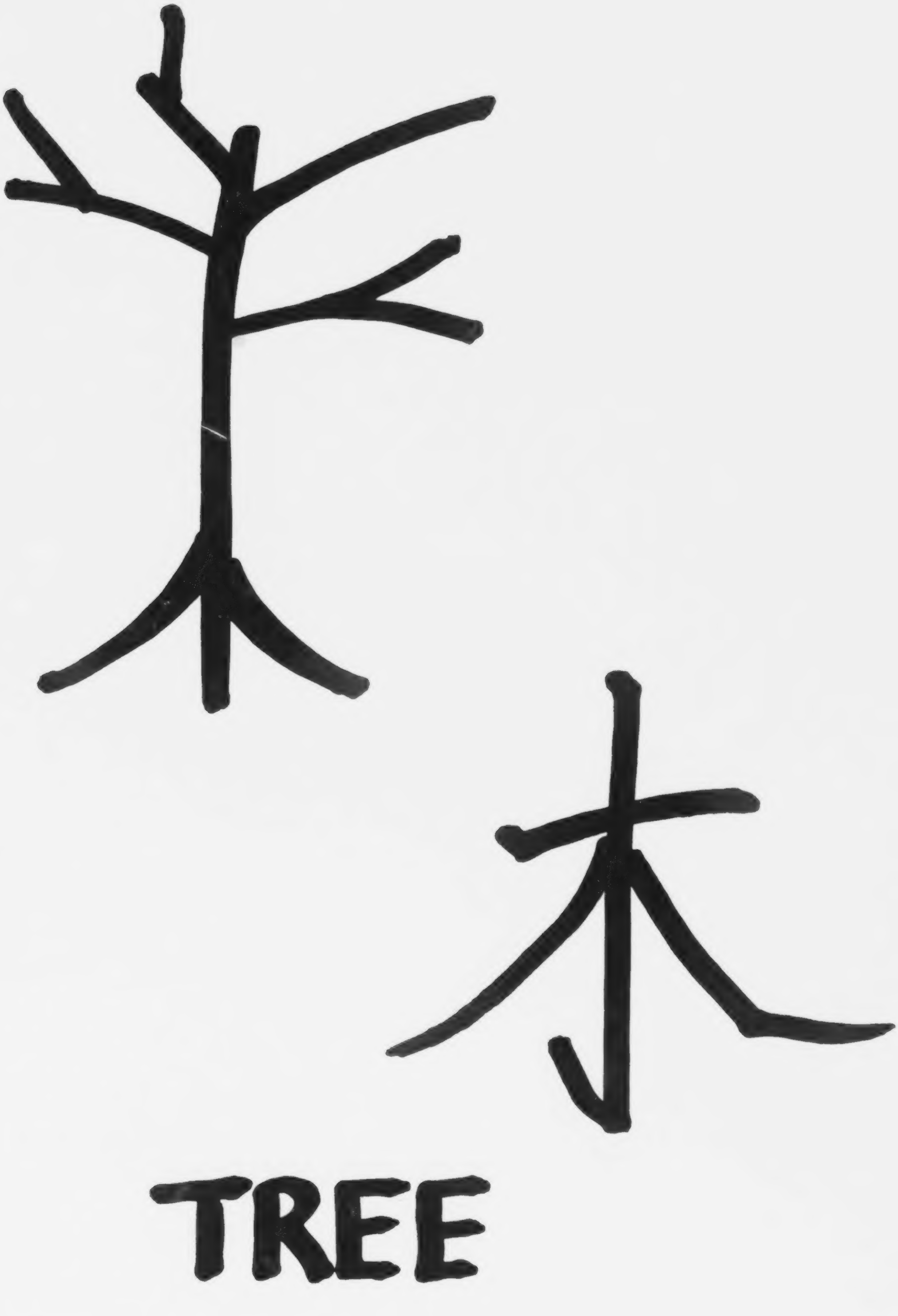
SUN

DISPLAY

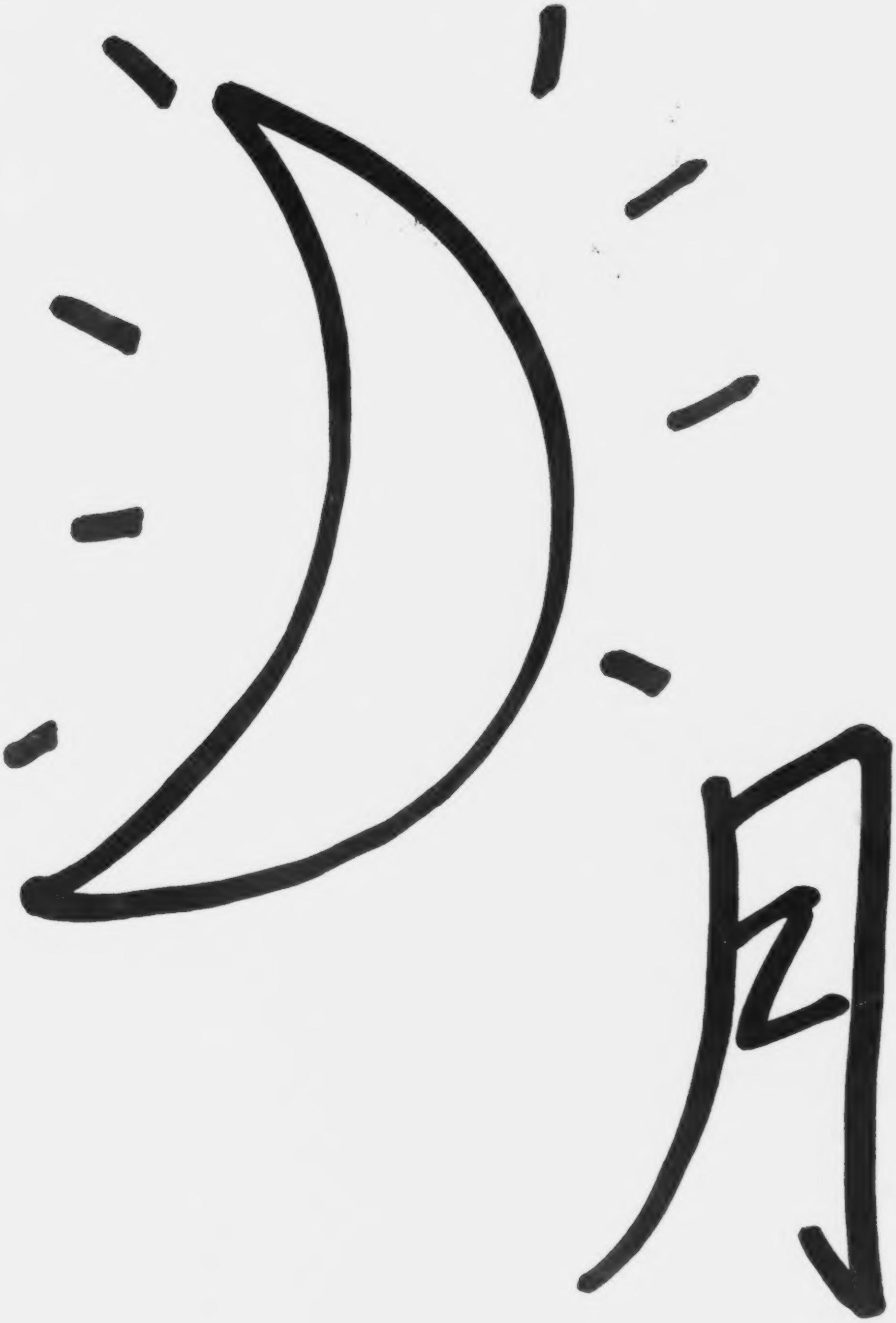


PERSON

DISPLAY

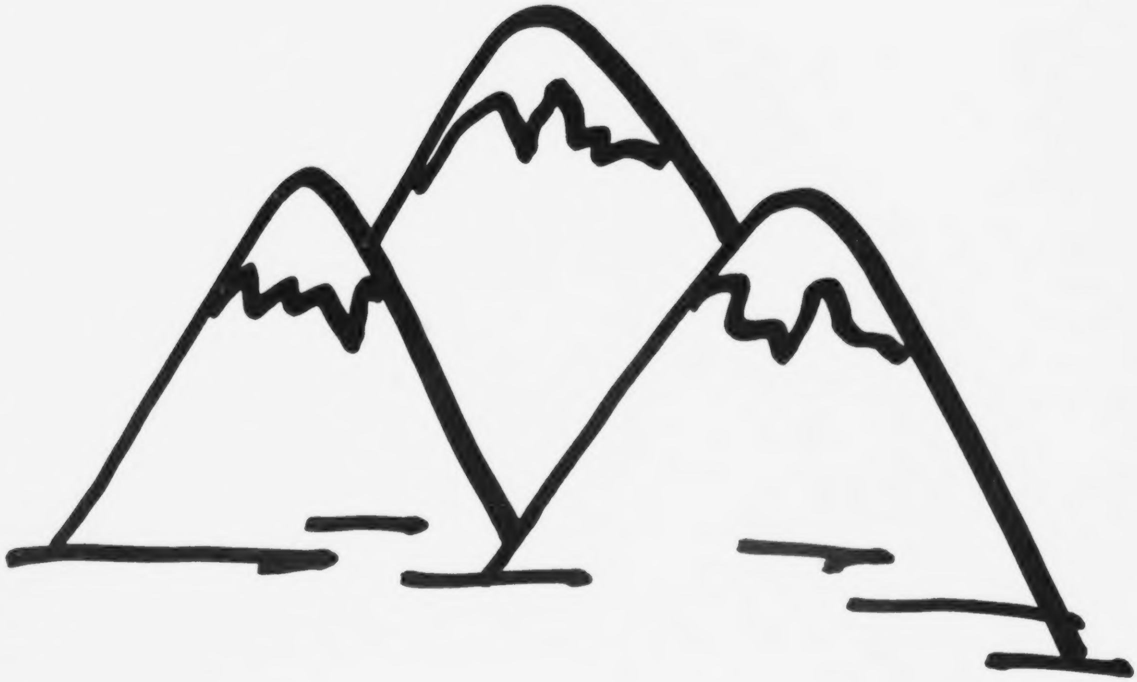


DISPLAY



MOON

DISPLAY



山

MOUNTAIN

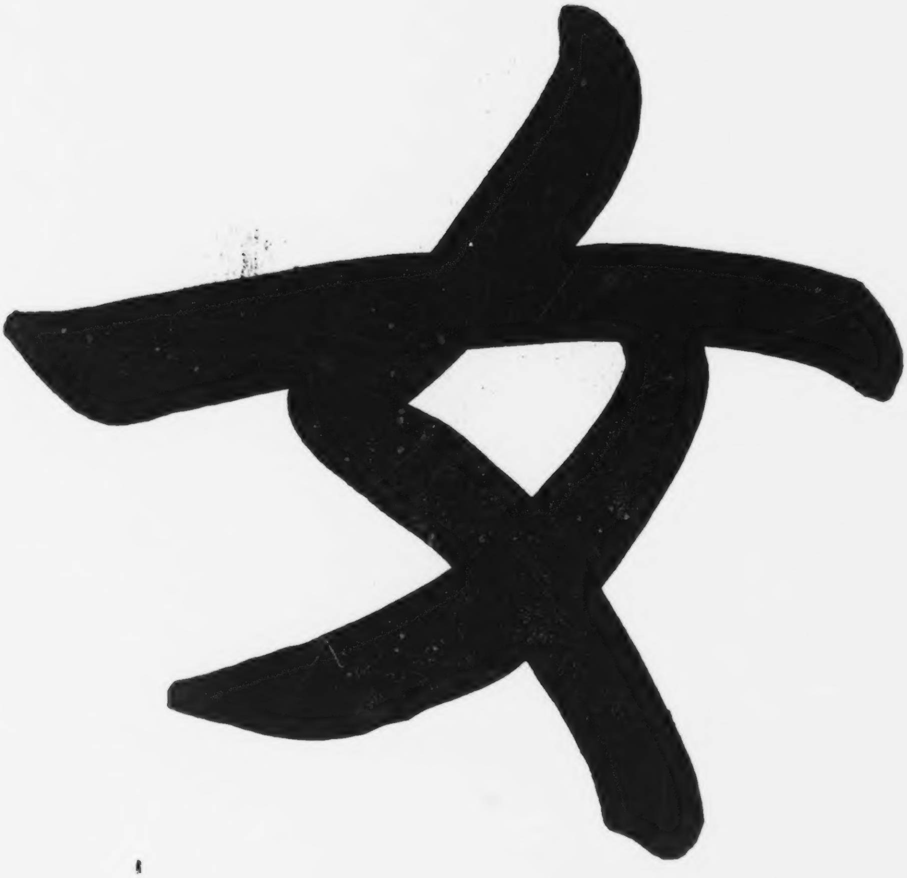
DISPLAY

大

large/big

okii

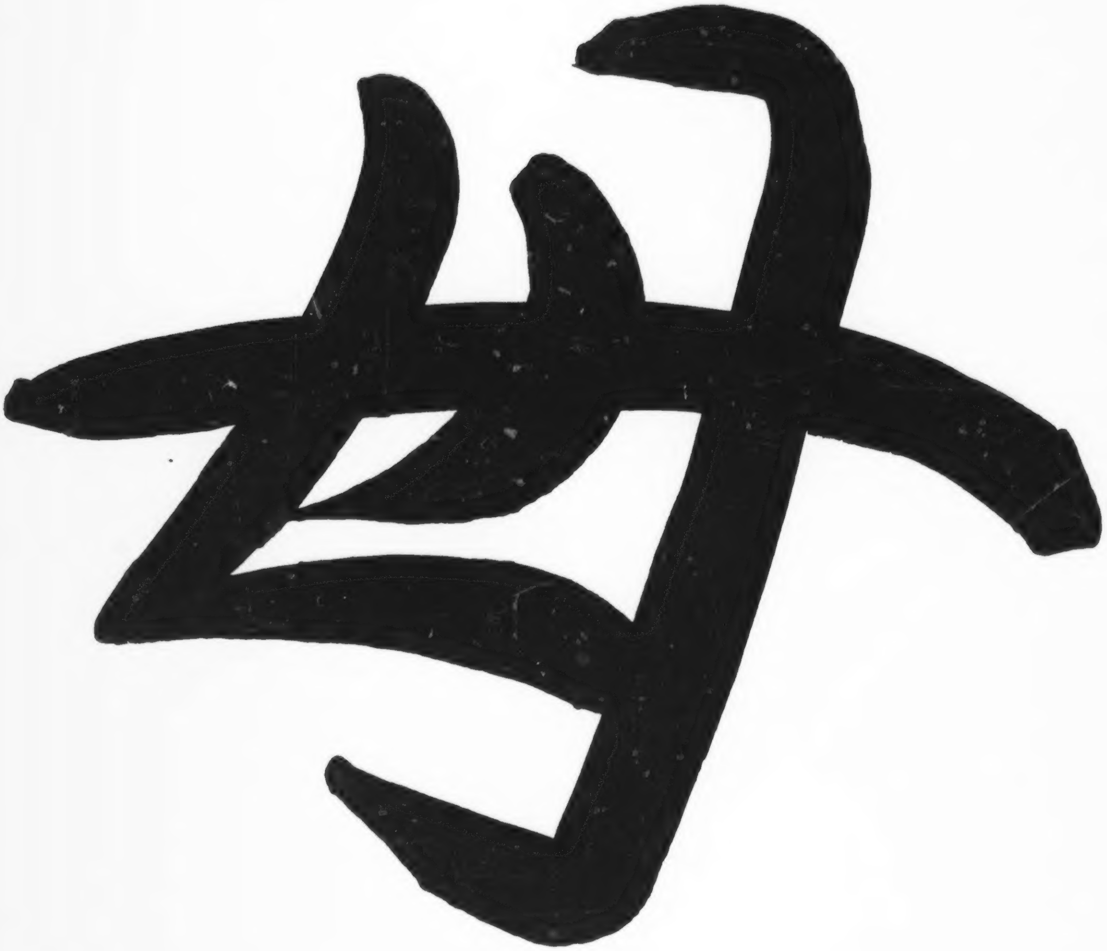
DISPLAY



woman/women

onna

DISPLAY



mother

haha

DISPLAY

父

father

chichi

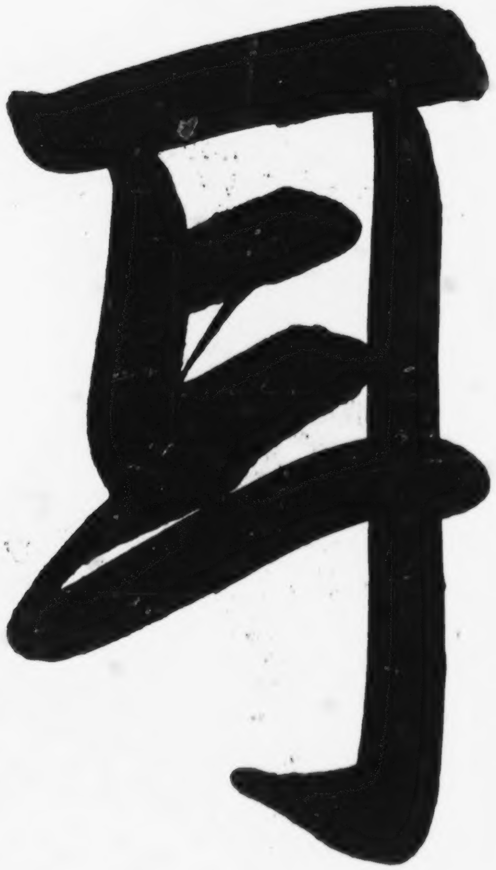
DISPLAY

車

automobile

kuruma

DISPLAY



ear

mimi

DISPLAY

林

woods

hayashi

DISPLAY

男

man/men

otoko

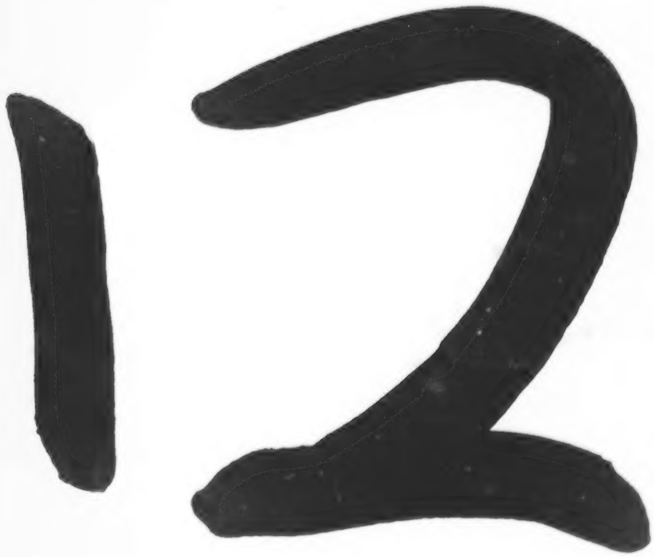
DISPLAY

田

ricefield

ta

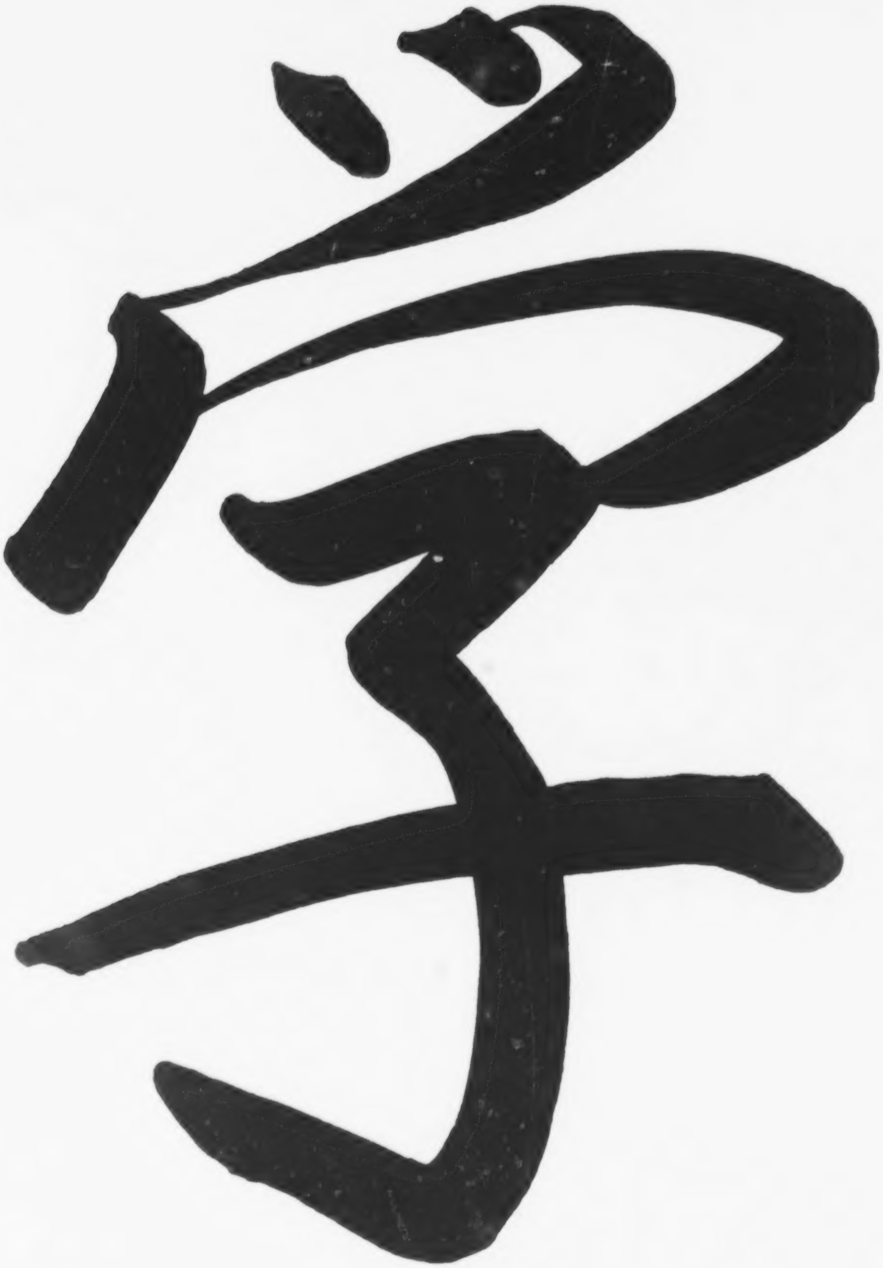
DISPLAY



mouth

kuchi

DISPLAY



study

gaku

DISPLAY

牛

cow

ushi

DISPLAY

上

up/above

ue

DISPLAY

下

under/below/down

shita

DISPLAY

花

flower

hana

DISPLAY

小

small

chiisai

DISPLAY

足

foot/leg

ashi

DISPLAY

犬

dog

inu

7. JAPANESE NUMBERS

Introduction:

In this activity, students learn about the traditional Japanese numbering system and consider instances in which the Japanese use their traditional numbering vs. Arabic numbering. Through this activity, students recognize cultural alternatives and cross-cultural adaptations for addressing common situations and needs.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Demonstrate a basic understanding of the traditional Japanese numbering system.
2. Recognize that there are other numbering systems in the world.
3. Appreciate cultural diversity and alternative ways of dealing with common problems and situations.

Grade Level: 4-9

Teaching Time: 1 class period

Materials: Copies of Handouts 7-1 and 7-2 for all students

Procedure:

1. Ask if there are any students in the class who can count to ten in another language. Some students should be able to demonstrate. Ask students if they know of any ways of writing numbers other than the Arabic system of 1, 2, 3, and so on. They might mention Roman numerals, base systems, or the difference between cardinal and ordinal numbers. Explain to students that, while many countries of the world have traditionally used the same symbols for numbers that we in the United States do, a number of countries have not. Japan is one such country. The traditional Japanese numbering system uses characters similar to the characters used for other Japanese words. These characters were adapted from the Chinese system of writing hundreds of years ago. In modern Japan, both Japanese numbers and Arabic numbers are commonly used.

2. Introduce the traditional Japanese numbering system by putting the following symbols on the board:

ichi	(pronounced eechee)	1	一
ni	(pronounced nee)	2	二
san	(pronounced sahn)	3	三
shi	(pronounced shee)	4	四
go	(pronounced go)	5	五

Activity developed by Reny Sieck.

roku	(pronounced rokoo)	6	六
shichi	(pronounced she chee)	7	七
hachi	(pronounced ha chee)	8	八
ku	(pronounced kew)	9	九
ju	(pronounced jew)	10	十

Allow students time to practice writing and saying the numbers 1 through 10 in Japanese.

3. Next, explain how the Chinese, who originally developed these symbols, created higher numbers – by simply putting two or more symbols together.

The number system progresses as follows:

11 is broken into a 10 and a 1: 十一

Similarly, successive numbers are written as:

12 十二
13 十三
14 十四

and so on

20 is perceived as two 10s and written: 二十

21 二十一
22 二十二
23 二十三

The symbol for 100 is written: 百

The number 247 would be written as follows:

二百四十七 two-hundred-four-tens-seven

Ask students how this numbering system differs from the system of writing numbers that we use. Have the class consider advantages and disadvantages of such a system. For example, which system makes it easier to understand "10's" place? In which system does it take longer to write 3?

4. Allow time to practice Japanese numbering by writing down some Japanese number symbols and having students call out the English equivalent. For example:

25 二十五

36 三十六

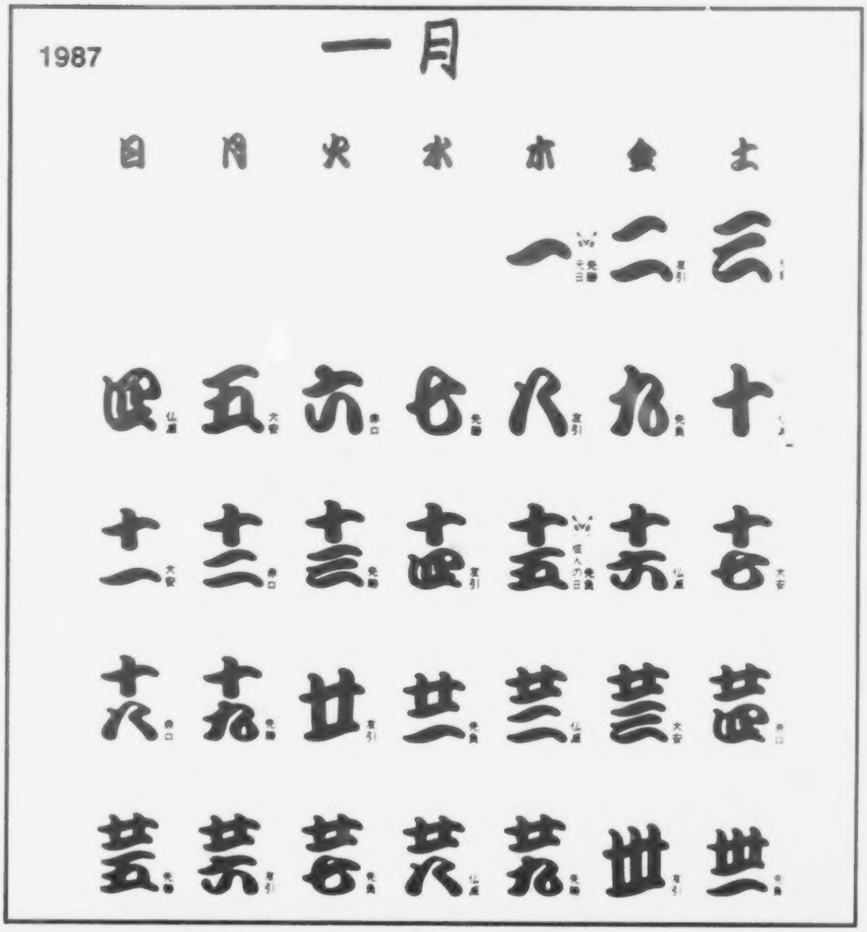
72 七十二

150 一百五十

5. Distribute Handout 7-1 and review situations in which Japanese characters and Arabic numbers are used in everyday Japanese life. For example, some Japanese calendars use the traditional characters, while others do not. Newspaper advertisements quote prices and phone numbers in Arabic numbers. Restaurant windows and shop display windows may use either form.

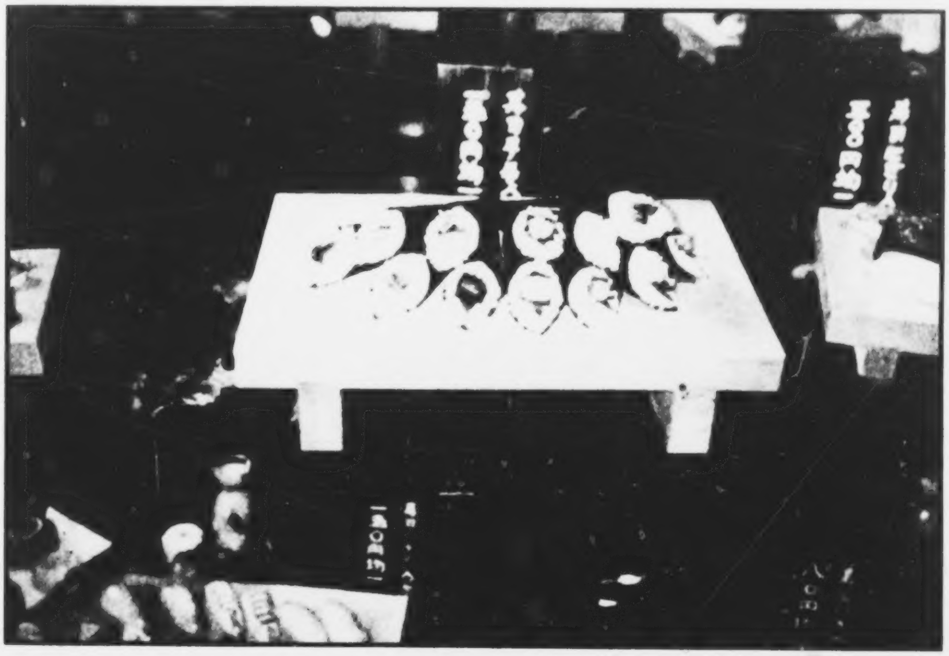
6. Distribute Handout 7-2. Students may complete the exercises as an in-class or homework assignment. Answers to the exercises are as follows: (1) 十四, 四十六, 一百十一, 一百二十九, 七十二; (2) 900, 14, 13, 51, 325, 711; (3-4) answers will vary.

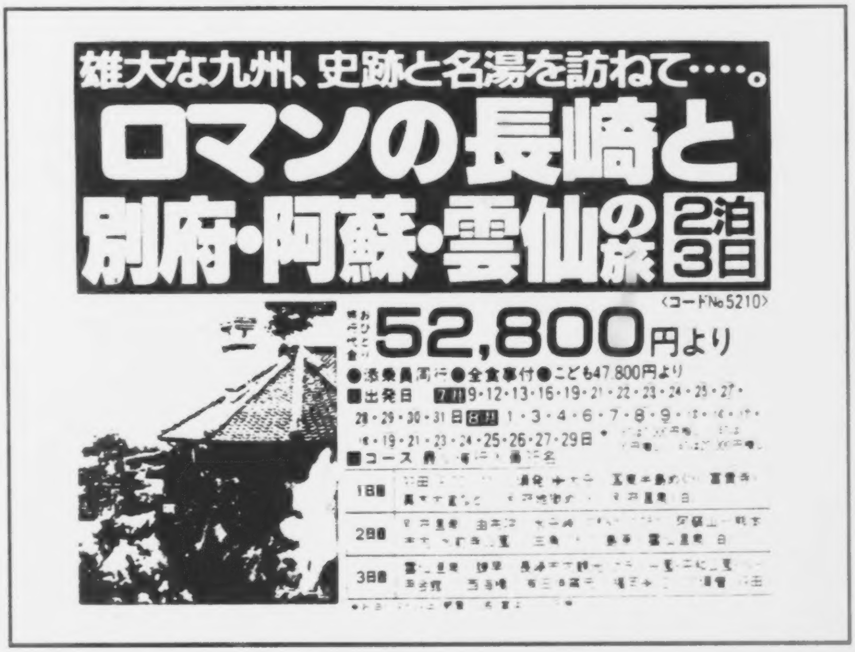
JAPANESE NUMBERS



1987 一月

日	月	火	水	木	金	土
				一 元日 先勝	二 友引	三 [illegible]
四 仏滅	五 大安	六 赤口	七 先勝	八 友引	九 先負	十 [illegible]
十一 大安	十二 赤口	十三 先勝	十四 友引	十五 成人の日 先負	十六 仏滅	十七 大安
十八 赤口	十九 先勝	廿 友引	廿一 先負	廿二 仏滅	廿三 大安	廿四 赤口
廿五 先勝	廿六 友引	廿七 先負	廿八 仏滅	廿九 先勝	卅 友引	卅一 先負





雄大な九州、史跡と名湯を訪ねて….。

ロマンの長崎と

別府・阿蘇・雲仙の旅 2泊3日

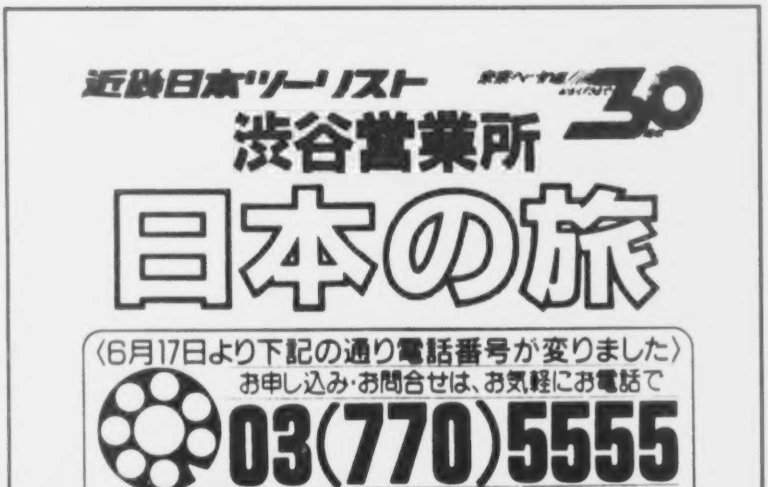
〈コードNo5210〉

52,800円より

●添乗員同行●全食事付●こども47.800円より

■出発日 7月 9・12・13・16・19・21・22・23・24・25・27・28・29・30・31日 8月 1・3・4・6・7・8・9・[illegible]・19・21・23・24・25・26・27・29日

■コース



近畿日本ツーリスト

渋谷営業所

日本の旅

〈6月17日より下記の通り電話番号が変りました〉

お申し込み・お問合せは、お気軽にお電話で

03(770)5555

土曜（午後）日曜 専用 03(984)6655

受託販売(株)ツーリストサービス池袋西口営業所

近畿日本ツーリスト(株)旅行業代理店業第2469号

NUMBER CONVERSIONS

1. Write the following numbers in Japanese characters:

14 ____________________

46 ____________________

111 ____________________

129 ____________________

72 ____________________

2. Translate the following Japanese numbers into their Arabic equivalents.

九百 ____________________

十四 ____________________

十三 ____________________

五十一 ____________________

三百二十五 ____________________

3. Write your locker or bicycle lock combination in Japanese.

____

4. Write your phone number in Japanese.

____

8. A STICK BEFORE YOU TUMBLE: JAPANESE PROVERBS

Introduction:

Proverbs and common expressions tell a great deal about a people's beliefs and values. In this activity, students examine Japanese proverbs and develop hypotheses about their meanings. By comparing these sayings to Western proverbs with which they are more familiar, students will begin to realize that people from different cultures such as Japan and the United States share many similar values, concerns, and customs.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Compare some Japanese and familiar Western proverbs.
2. Identify themes and values common to American and Japanese people.
3. Use their own experiences to reflect on significant proverbs.

Grade Level: 4-8

Teaching Time: 1-2 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handout 8-1 for all students; newsprint; markers

Procedure:

1. Introduce the activity by asking if students are familiar with the term *proverb*. Write a common proverb on the board. "A stitch in time saves nine" is a good example. Ask students the meaning of the saying and reach a class definition of *proverb*. The definition should include mention of the social value of proverbs.

2. Divide the class into small groups. Distribute butcher paper or newsprint and markers to each group. Allow groups ten minutes to brainstorm and record a list of proverbs. Teachers may write several examples on the chalkboard to get students started: "Don't cry over spilled milk"; "People who live in glass houses..."; and so on.

Teachers may find it necessary to review the rules of brainstorming before beginning this activity:

- Saying anything that comes to mind is okay.
- Discussing other people's statements is not okay.
- Evaluating or criticizing other people's statements is not okay.
- Repeating someone else's idea is okay.
- "Piggybacking" on someone else's idea is okay—that is, it is okay to add something or slightly change someone else's idea.
- Silence is okay.
- Even if you think you have finished, keep on going for awhile.

3. Post group lists of proverbs around the room, asking students to identify those proverbs that were listed most frequently by the entire class. Place an asterisk by these or underline the expressions. Ask students to explain the meanings of the proverbs.

Activity developed by Jacquelyn Johnson.

4. Distribute Handout 8-1, "A Stick Before You Tumble." Tell students to circle or star those proverbs whose meanings are very similar or exactly the same as proverbs from their own culture. Have them write meanings in their own words or write similar American proverbs. Students may have difficulty with some of the Japanese proverbs, while explanations for others will come easily.

5. Discuss the proverbs that Americans seem to have in common with the Japanese, using the following questions:

- What are the meanings of these proverbs?
- What are their "American" counterparts?
- What information do these proverbs offer us about the Japanese people?
- What clues do they give us about Japanese values or concerns?

6. Using the **Teacher Background Notes** as a guide, provide the meanings of the Japanese proverbs that students found difficult to explain. Why were these sayings more difficult to understand? What information do these proverbs provide us about the Japanese?

7. Ask each student to select a favorite proverb and to explain why he/she especially likes that saying. Does this proverb illustrate an idea or value that we share with the Japanese? Does it show any cultural differences between us and the Japanese? In what ways?

8. To provide closure, ask students to think of a proverb that is significant to them. Encourage them to try to remember how and from whom the proverb was learned. Students should write a short paragraph explaining why it is an important proverb and how it has influenced their lives. Ask students to include in their story hypotheses about Japanese students. For example, do they think a Japanese student their age would have a similar story? In what ways might their experience with this proverb be similar to a Japanese student's story?

Teacher Background Notes:

Explanations and analogous sayings are provided below for the Japanese proverbs used in this activity.

1. A stick before you tumble: seek help before it is too late; remedy a problem before it is too late. Equivalent proverb: A stitch in time saves nine.

2. The water which fell from the plate will not go back: events or mistakes cannot be changed. Equivalent proverb: no crying over spilt milk; no use closing the gate after the cows are out of the barn.

3. A sweet is better than cherry blossoms: something immediate and tangible is better than something distant or intangible. Equivalent proverb: A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

4. Single effort, double gain: it is possible to accomplish more than one goal with the same effort. Equivalent proverb: To kill two birds with one stone.

5. You will gain three moons if you wake up early in the morning: people are rewarded for hard work, you will have more time if you use your time wisely. Equivalent proverb: Early to bed, early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.

6. Do not count the fur of the *tanuki* which is not yet captured: it is a mistake to count on things or events that are not certain yet. (A *tanuki* is a raccoon-like animal.) Equivalent proverb: Don't count your chickens before they are hatched; the best laid plans of mice and men often go awry.

7. Right beneath the lighthouse there is darkness: things may seem worse before they seem better. Equivalent proverb: It is always darkest right before the dawn.

8. Not to say is better than to say: sometimes it is better to "hold your tongue." Equivalent proverb: If you can't say anything nice about a person, then don't say anything at all.

9. One man's story is no story: you must hear all sides of a story to gain an accurate picture.

10. Two captains sink a ship: too many leaders cause problems and disagreements. Equivalent proverb: Too many cooks spoil the broth.

A STICK BEFORE YOU TUMBLE

Write in your own words the meanings of the Japanese proverbs below. Put a star next to proverbs that are similar to American proverbs.

1. A stick before you tumble.

2. The water which fell from the plate will not go back.

3. A sweet is better than cherry blossoms.

4. Single effort, double gain.

5. You will gain three moons if you wake up early in the morning.

6. Do not count the fur of the *tanuki* which is not yet captured.

7. Right beneath the lighthouse there is darkness.

8. Not to say is better than to say.

9. One man's story is no story.

10. Two captains sink a ship.

9. SADAKO AND THE THOUSAND PAPER CRANES

Introduction:

This activity is designed to accompany the short children's story, *Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes*, a fictionalized account of a real Japanese girl who contracted leukemia ten years after being exposed to radiation from the atomic bombing of Hiroshima. Guided classroom reading of the story, which is synopsized in the **Teacher Background Notes**, allows students the opportunity to express their own feelings and beliefs about nuclear weapons and peace. Suggestions for using community resources and children's families to provide students with historical background on World War II are included in the activity.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Articulate an understanding of the symbolism represented by the death of the Japanese schoolgirl in the short story, *Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes*.

2. Use their own families and resources in their community to acquire additional information about World War II and the bombing of Hiroshima.

3. Create an *origami* crane and explain the cultural and historical significance of the origami artform.

Grade Level: 4-6

Teaching Time: 3-4 class periods, plus homework

Materials: Copies of Handout 9-1 for all students; student copies of *Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes* (Current publishers – paperback: Yearling Books, Dell Publishing, Inc., New York, ISBN 0440-47465-5; hardbound: Putnam Publishers, New York, ISBN 0-399-20520-9)

Advance Preparation: Due to the content of this story, it is suggested that teachers contact parents and explain the objectives of this activity in advance of classroom reading. Contact veterans' organizations in the community to provide a guest speaker for the classroom. The guest speaker should be encouraged to read the story of Sadako before visiting the class.

Procedure:

1. To set the historical context for the story of Sadako and to identify the correct time frame for this activity elicit dates of students' birth, their parents' birthdates, and their grandparents' birthdates. Explain that although this story takes place in 1954-55, it is based on an event that occurred ten years earlier, in 1945. At that time, World War II was brought to an end by the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. The story the class will read is based on the life of an elementary schoolgirl during the years after World War II.

2. Locate Japan and the United States on a large classroom map. Throughout the next several days, encourage students to speak with grandparents and other older citizens in the community who can recall some of the events of World War II.

Activity developed by Jacquelyn Johnson and Sally Stoker.

3. Distribute the story, *Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes*. As a pre-reading activity, students should skim the story quickly for two to three minutes. As they skim the story, students should look for terms, incidents, dates, and so on, with which they are already familiar, as well as things about which they would like to know more. Record students' ideas on a two-column chart on the chalkboard or on poster paper. Possible items for the chart are outlined below.

What I Already Know:	**What I Would Like to Know:**
Japan bombed Pearl Harbor	What is an A-bomb?
The United States bombed Hiroshima	Why was Hiroshima bombed?
Things about *origami*	What is an epilogue?
Some things about Japanese foods	
Some things about Japanese clothing	

4. Post this chart in the classroom for the remainder of the activity. During the next several days, students should be encouraged to add items in both columns. Questions in the "What I Would Like to Know" column can be given to a guest speaker from a local veterans' organization to prepare for a classroom presentation. Students can also use these questions to interview their parents, grandparents, and other older citizens in the community. Some questions can be further developed into enrichment activities.

5. Assign chapters 1 through 6 to be read silently by students. (The reading assignment may be apportioned differently, based on student abilities.) Use some of the following questions to check for student understanding:

- What caused the death of Sadako's grandmother?
- Each year how does Sadako's family recognize Oba-Chan's death? What do the people in her community call this day?
- In what ways do the people of Hiroshima recognize the A-bombing of their community?
- What play activity does Sadako enjoy the most? What school event is she looking forward to?
- What is Sadako's secret? Why is she reluctant to share her secret?
- What is the cause of Sadako's illness? Why does Sadako think it is not possible for her to have leukemia, the A-bomb disease? What does she already know about this disease?
- Who made Sadako's first paper crane? What story about paper cranes did Sadako's friend Chizuko tell her?
- Why does Sadako think it is not possible for her friend Kenji to have leukemia? Why does Kenji not believe that folding cranes will help him recover from this disease?
- What is the significance of paper cranes in the story?

6. Focus student's attention on the theme of paper cranes. Ask students what they already know about *origami*, the art of paper folding. Explain that though students may be familiar with *origami* as a game, it is considered an artform in Japan. Children in Japan learn the art of paper folding when they are very young. Because it has been passed down from generation to generation, *origami* is considered part of the cultural heritage of the Japanese people. The paper crane is perhaps the most popular of all the traditional *origami* folds. The crane is a sacred bird in Japan; according to legend, it can live 1,000 years. Children in Japan learn that a wish will be granted to one who folds 1,000 paper cranes.

7. Next, read chapters 7 through 9 aloud in class. Because this section of the book includes the death of Sadako, it is important to read together, allowing ample time for immediate discussion. Guide students to an understanding that despite some differences in their lives and the lives of Japanese children, grieving for the loss of loved ones is common in both cultures.

Using some of the questions below, debrief with students the progression of Sadako's illness and her eventual death from leukemia:

- How did the gold crane help Sadako? How did folding additional paper cranes help Sadako and her family deal with her illness and her death?
- What did Sadako's mother make for her? Why do you think her mother made the *kimono* for her?
- Do you think this story ends with her death?

8. Distribute Handout 9-1, "The Children's Peace Memorial," and read the story's epilogue together with students. Guide students to the understanding that the story does not really end with Sadako's death. The questions below may be helpful in leading students to this realization:

- What did her classmates do for Sadako following her death?
- How did Sadako's classmates make others aware of her death?
- Many children died in the bombing of Hiroshima. Sadako actually survived the A-bomb in 1945. Why is Sadako's figure displayed on the Children's Memorial in Hiroshima Peace Park?
- Why is Sadako considered a heroine to children in Japan?
- In what ways do children all over the world recognize Sadako's death?

9. To culminate the activity, students can fold *origami* paper cranes. Directions for several different paper cranes can be found in books on *origami* in most school and community libraries. **Note:** The Hiroshima International School has established the *Thousand Crane Club*, a global peace project involving children from throughout the world. *Origami* cranes mailed to this school will be hung at the Children's Memorial in Hiroshima Peace Park. Students from this school will also photograph students' cranes and send a certificate of membership in their organization. Write to:

Thousand Crane Club
Hiroshima International School
Ushita-naka
Higashi-ku
Hiroshima-shi 730
JAPAN

Teacher Background Notes:

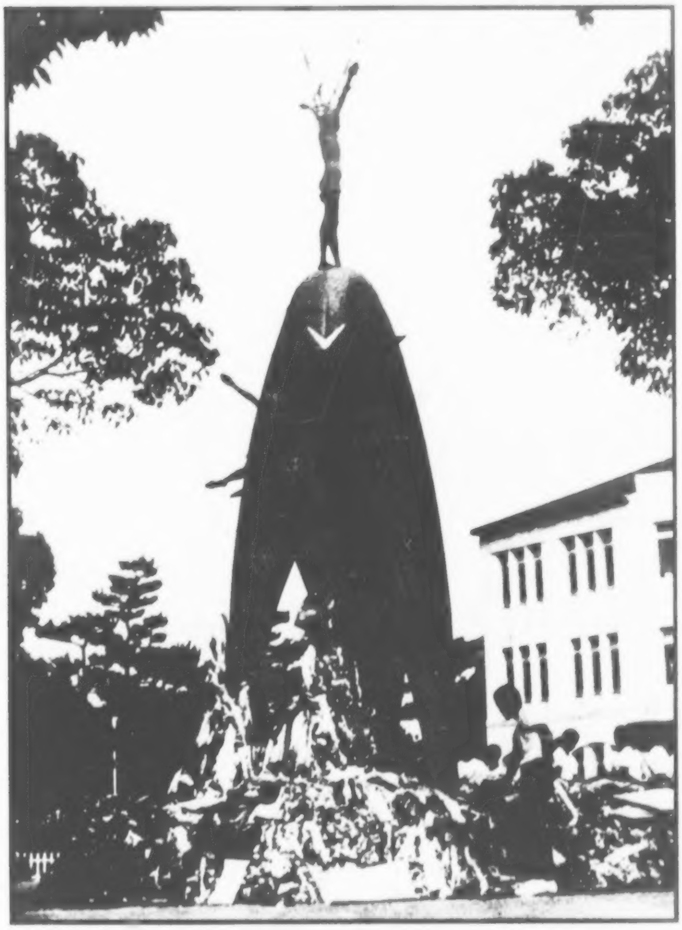
After becoming ill, Sadako clung to the belief, based on an old Japanese legend, that by folding 1,000 paper cranes, a sacred bird in Japan, her wish for good health would be granted. According to the version of the story read in this activity, Sadako folded 644 *origami* cranes before her death in 1955; her schoolmates completed the chain.* Sadako was buried with 1,000 cranes. Her spirit and courage made Sadako a heroine to children in Japan.

Sadako's death is in many ways symbolic, representing the countless deaths that have continued to occur years after the bombing of Hiroshima. The Children's Peace Monument in Hiroshima Peace Park, built with money contributed by school children from throughout Japan and several foreign countries, is a tribute to Sadako and all the children of Hiroshima who died directly or indirectly as a result of the first use of nuclear weapons.

*Accounts of the actual number of paper cranes Sadako folded before her death vary:

- Materials from the Paper Crane Club in Hiroshima describe how Sadako completed 1,000 cranes. When she did not recover from leukemia, she began a second 1,000.
- A completed total of 964 paper cranes is recorded in *A Place Called Hiroshima*, by Betty Jean Lifton (New York: Harper and Row, 1985).

SADAKO AND THE THOUSAND PAPER CRANES



The Children's Memorial in Hiroshima Peace Park
is illustrated above. Find Sadako at the top of the statue.
What is she holding?

10. JAPAN THROUGH POETRY: ONE VIEW OF A UNIQUE ASIAN COUNTRY

Introduction:

Thinking of ways in which Japanese culture is different from Western cultures of Europe and the Americas is easy. However, students often tend to equate Japan, as the culture under study, with all Asian countries. It is important for students to recognize and appreciate the diversity of cultures, not only between Asia and the West, but also among Asian countries.

In this activity, students examine examples of Japanese, Korean, and Western poetry about nature. In so doing, they consider the unique characteristics, reflected in poetry, that distinguish Japan from the West as well as from the rest of Asia. Students also reflect upon commonalities of emotion and values that exist across all cultures.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Appreciate different views of nature through poetry.
2. Distinguish between Japanese, other East Asian, and Western interpretations of nature.
3. Explain Japan's unique view of nature.
4. Discuss human values, themes, and emotions.

Grade Level: 7-12

Teaching Time: 1 class period

Materials: Copies of Handouts 10-1 and 10-2 for all students; poster paper; markers

Procedure:

1. Distribute Handout 10-1, "Comparative Poetry," to students. Ask for volunteers to read the poems aloud.

2. As a large group, make a list of the characteristics of each poem. If students need help, encourage them to visualize the poets' descriptions. Write students' responses on the board. Student responses should resemble the descriptions given below. If students are having difficulty, teachers can provide the descriptions listed below and have students match the descriptions with the poems. *Do not* reveal the identity of the poets to students at this time.

Poem 1: Basho (Japan): contemplative; awed; wondering; leaves nature alone; examines flower closely; looks at detail; small scale and narrow focus.

Poem 2: Tennyson (English): active; looking for a hypothesis and meaning; removes flower from earth and examines it closely; search for "truth"; analytical; sees flower as part of a larger picture.

Poem 3: Yun Sondo (Korean): contemplative; humans do not intrude; does not look closely; nature is seen as a whole; flowers are seen as part of a bigger picture.

Activity developed by Jaye Zola.

3. Ask students to guess the nationality of the poets for each poem. Which poem is Japanese? Korean? Western? Provide students with the poets' names and nationalities and ask them what they think the poems reflect about each culture – its attitudes, values, and how it views the world. Focus students' attention on similarities and differences in culture reflected in the poems through the following questions:

- What similarities are there between the two East Asian poems? (Both are passive and contemplative views of nature; both admire nature from a distance, they do not disrupt or intrude upon nature.)
- What similarities are there between the Korean and English poems? (Both look at the flowers as part of a whole, part of a larger picture.)
- How is the Japanese poem different from the Korean and English poems? What does this suggest about Japan's uniqueness vis-a-vis other East Asian cultures? (It is the only poem that focuses on minute detail.)

4. As closure to the activity, divide the class into groups of three and have each group agree upon the poem they would most like to draw. Have the group draw the view expressed in that poem. This may help students visualize the differences in perception among the poems. When students present their drawings, have them explain why they like a particular poem the best. Post the pictures around the room so students can appreciate the differences.

5. (Optional) Have students consider the additional examples of Japanese *haiku* poetry on Handout 10-2. Do the same characteristics and trends students identified earlier for Japanese poetry emerge? Students might apply their knowledge concerning the Japanese view of nature to other forms of artistic expression: landscape paintings, gardens, *bonsai*, *ikebana* (flower arranging) and so on.

COMPARATIVE POETRY

Poem 1

If you look closely
The fence is blooming
With nazuna flowers

Poem 2

Flower in the crannied wall
I pluck you out of the crannies,
I hold you here, root and all, in my hand,
Little flower - but if I could understand
What you are, root and all, and all in all,
I should know what God and man is.

Poem 3

Fog lifts from the cove.
The mountains behind brighten the sun.
At night the tide ebbs,
In daytime it comes in.
Flowers round the river village -
Much better when seen from afar.

JAPANESE HAIKU

1. A lovely thing to see
Through the paper window's hole
The Milky Way

2. On a temple bell
Resting, asleep
A tiny butterfly

3. If you look closely
The fence is blooming
With Nazuna flowers

4. The autumn wind
Through the opening of a sliding door
A piercing voice

5. A wind from Mt. Fuji
Resting on the fan
My souvenir of Edo

SECTION III

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

11. TRADITION AND CHANGE:
A CASE STUDY OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Introduction:

In this activity, students examine different viewpoints and values concerning change and modernization in Japan. Among the issues raised are the values and needs of young people vs. those of the older generation and industrialization vs. rural means of making a living. Students gain insight into some of the issues surrounding development by examining the problems of a fishing village, the flight of its young people to the cities, and industrial development.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Write arguments supporting different points of view on development.
2. Appreciate the trade-offs involved in economic development.
3. Express their personal views.
4. Apply a Japanese case study of development to other parts of the world.

Grade Level: 7-12

Teaching Time: 2 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handouts 11-1, 11-2, and 11-3 for all students; poster paper; blank paper; markers

Procedure:

1. To personalize the case study, ask students if they plan to stay in their community after they graduate from high school. Divide the class into small groups and distribute poster paper and marking pens to each group. In two columns on the paper, groups should record reasons for staying in and/or leaving their present community after high school graduation.

2. Explain to students that in this activity they will read a case study of economic development in a Japanese village called Hikaru. Tell students that a case study is a story that is an example of a particular situation. The situation usually presents a problem that has several different sides. They will read about the issue of economic development in Hikaru from several different perspectives and decide on a solution to the problem.

3. Distribute Handout 11-1, which describes the case. After students have finished reading this material, ask them to define the issues involved in this case study. Ask students to predict three possible sides or viewpoints in the case. Stress that these are not the only viewpoints, but that they do express many of the feelings of the people in the area.

4. Distribute Handouts 11-2 and 11-3. Ask students to read the three viewpoints and complete the "Big T" for homework.

5. To debrief the homework assignment, ask students to state what they consider to be the most effective and persuasive arguments for each side. Allow time for students to present their personal views and reasons for holding these views. Take a class vote on whether the plant should come to Hikaru village.

Activity developed by Jaye Zola.

6. Ask students if they think the issue of tradition vs. change is limited to Japan. Use the following questions to stimulate discussion:

- Are any other places in the world facing this same issue? Where?
- Does this situation exist anywhere in the United States?
- Do students' lists concerning their futures in their own town reflect any themes common to the case of the Japanese village? Any different themes?

7. To conclude the lesson, ask students to reassemble in their small groups. Present each group with the following activity options. When groups have completed the exercises, post their work around the classroom.

- Make a protest poster expressing the views of local Hikaru fishermen against the chemical plant.
- Create an editorial cartoon expressing the views of industry about development of Hikaru.
- Write a rock and roll song expressing the Hikaru teenager's point of view about village life.
- Write a letter to the editor of the newspaper expressing your views on modernization and change as they relate to Hikaru.

HIKARU, JAPAN: A CASE STUDY IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Hikaru, Japan, is a small fishing village of 500 people. The people work hard and follow the religious and cultural traditions of their ancestors. They face the pressures of modernization and change like many people living in rural Japan today. However, as hard as they try, they cannot keep out the influences of the city. The old ways are being challenged.

Since the early 1900s, the village population has decreased as people have moved away to work in the cities. The young people are especially eager to leave. The adults of the community are sad to see their children go. They worry about the future of the fishermen's families. Sons used to work for their fathers, learning the skills of sailing and fishing. Women married fishermen and helped with the fishing chores. As the modern outside world calls the younger generations away, the fishermen wonder if there is anything they can do to keep their children at home.

The Sejo Corporation is interested in building a chemical plant near Hikaru, hoping to employ the people of the area. The Hikaru area was chosen as a plant site for several reasons. The area has easy access to major cities by railroad. The coast has a good harbor to develop for shipping. The area has a large population available to work in the plant. Land is inexpensive and can be developed for commercial sail and residential growth.

The people of Hikaru and surrounding villages are not sure what to do about the Sejo Corporation. The new plant raises a variety of issues for which there are many consequences. As a citizen of Hikaru, would you support the building of the chemical plant? Mr. Nishimura, Ms. Chinon, and Mr. Shimizu have three different opinions. They represent the views of a fisherman, a teenager, and a plant manager.

THREE HIKARU CITIZENS TALK ABOUT CHANGE

Mr. Nishimura: Fisherman

I am the father of four children and have been a fisherman all of my life. My father was a fisherman, as was his father before him. My whole life has depended upon the sea. It has been hard work, early hours, and many uncertainties. A fisherman has no guarantee of filling his nets or having good weather. But I am my own boss and I can do as I please.

I had hoped that my eldest son would join me and learn the trade, but he has gone to the university instead. My second son is working in an automobile plant in Yokohama. My two daughters are still at home, but they talk about going to the city also. If no one stays to help me, it will be the end of a way of life.

If the Sejo plant comes to our area, it will not necessarily solve the problem. This area is clean. Land and water are not polluted. The people live off the land. What will happen when a large plant comes here bringing noise and dirt? My quiet village will become like a city. The plant will ruin our rivers and destroy our harbor with its big ships. Fishing will surely be destroyed. The fish will go some place else so we will have to fish farther away.

If the plant comes to our area, the children may stay. True, they will not become fishermen. But their children will know their grandparents, and they may want to return to the life of the sea. Our families will remain close, and our children will not disappear into the large cities. The chemical plant may help our children to stay, but our way of life will be very different.

Mieko Chinon: Teenager

I watch TV and read many magazines. Life beyond my village is more exciting and has more opportunities for me than life here. I want to go and work for a large company. There are so many things to do in the city. Girls from our village who come back to visit look and act differently. They have nice clothes and talk about eating at restaurants, shopping, and making lots of friends. They marry and live in the cities with their husbands. They bring their families to visit for holidays. I can't stay here and marry the boys that are left. Who wants a fisherman for a husband? The work is hard, and the hours are long. A wife has to help too. My father is a great fisherman, but I don't want that lifestyle. I love my family and feel a lot of pressure to stay.

If the chemical plant comes to our area, I would think about staying. The village would change and be more modern. There would be more things to do, and new people would move in. I would not have to fish and I could have other opportunities open to me.

Mr. Shimizu: Plant Manager

There has been a lot of controversy about locating the Sejo plant in the Hikaru area. This area could use the economic boost that our plant can provide. We will increase the income, health, and living conditions for the citizens by locating here. Yet the farmers and fishermen are protesting against us. They are worried about the effect the plant will have on the environment and their way of life. They are backward and not reasonable about change. They do not understand that the old ways cannot exist forever. The young people in the area do not want to stay where there is so little opportunity. At least with our plant in the area, they can stay and have some way to earn a living. The older people must be willing to give up something to keep their children. There are trade-offs when economic development comes. Prosperity will bring the people a new way of life.

"THE BIG T"

Complete the chart below using the information provided in the previous readings. Try to identify five responses for each column.

Reasons for Locating the Chemical Plant in Hikaru	Reasons for Not Locating the Plant in Hikaru

From the list you have created, select what you feel to be the most effective argument for (1) the fisherman, (2) the teenager, and (3) the plant manager. Write your argument for each in the correct space below.

1.

2.

12. MANY PEOPLE, LITTLE LAND

Introduction:

Japan is a nation with many people, limited land, and some uninhabitable areas. The result is crowding and the need to use land efficiently. Because students often have difficulty conceiving of the large numbers of people in a country or imagining what crowding is like, this activity involves them in creating a special graphic that makes these ideas concrete.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Explain why Japan is a crowded nation.
2. Create a graphic representation of population density in the United States and in Japan.
3. Make inferences about ways of living based on population comparisons.

Grade Level: 6-10

Teaching Time: 1-2 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handouts 12-1 and 12-2 for all students; colored pencils; scissors

Procedure:

1. Ask students if they can imagine 5 billion people. Can they imagine 240 million people? 120 million people? Explain that some numbers are so large it's hard to get an idea of what they mean.

2. Tell students that Japan has more than 115,000,000 people. Explain that these people live in an area a little smaller than California. It is not just the number of people that makes Japan crowded, however. Geography and climate have made many places uninhabitable, or unfit for people to live there. The island of Hokkaido in northern Japan is both mountainous and cold. Few people live there; the Japanese think of this island as their frontier, their unexplored wilderness. While the climate is better on the other Japanese islands, inland mountains force people to live in the low coastal areas of each island.

3. Explain that you can often get a better idea of what numbers mean if information is shown graphically. Artists and cartographers (map makers) use many kinds of graphics, or illustrations, to show numerical information. In this activity, students will create a special graphic to compare population density – the number of people in a given area – in Japan and the United States.

4. Distribute Handout 12-1 and direct students to complete the activity. When students have completed the exercise, discuss their answers. The answers are as follows: (1) 3,600,000, (2) 240,000,000, (3) there are open spaces, (4) the United States has enough land for its people; the population density is not too high yet, (5) students should mark 1 1/2 squares *Japan*, (6) they are piled on top of each other, (7) Japan is a crowded nation; its population density is very high.

5. Ask students to draw inferences based on the graphic they created by answering such questions as:

   - Is there much room for farming in Japan? (no)

Activity developed by Lynn Parisi; adapted from *Our World* (Boulder, CO: Graphic Learning Corporation, 1986). Used by permission of the publisher.

- Do you think families in the United States or Japan probably have larger houses? (United States)
- What kind of yards do you think Japanese houses have? (very small or none)
- How might population density affect the amount of privacy people have? (There is less privacy, but the Japanese have developed social customs to help them deal with crowding. For example, Japanese people may pretend not to hear or see things that they think they should not. In this way, they try to provide other people with privacy.)

6. Point out that while the Japanese have small homes, most people live very comfortable lives because of the success of Japan's economy. Almost everybody in Japan who wants a job can find one. Because of a special custom in Japanese businesses, people usually work for the same company until they retire. Once hired, they do not have to worry about being fired or laid off. This places great pressure on Japanese young people, since how well they do in school and the university they are accepted in often determine the company they will work for until retirement. Discuss with students how this differs from the situation in the United States.

7. (Optional) To compare standards of living in the United States and Japan, distribute Handout 12-2. Have students poll the class to see how many of the items in the chart members of the class own. On which items are there big differences between your class and Japan? Discuss reasons why this might be so.

CREATING A SPECIAL POPULATION GRAPHIC

1. The large box at the top of the next page represents the size of the United States. Color it yellow. Each section stands for 100,000 square miles. Count the total number of sections and multiply by 100,000 to find the size of the United States in square miles. How much land does the United States have?

   ____________________ square miles

2. At the bottom of the page are 60 small squares. Color these red. These squares represent the population of the United States. If each square stands for approximately 4 million people, about how many people are there in the United States?

   ____

3. Cut out the country box and all the people squares. Put the people in the country box. Spread them out as evenly as you can. Are the people squares crowded together or are there open spaces?

   ____

4. Describe the population density of the United States in your own words.

   ____

   ____

5. The United States has about 25 times as much land as Japan. That means that Japan could be represented by 1 1/2 squares on the country box. Trace around 1 1/2 squares with your marking pen. Label this space *Japan*.

6. Japan has about half the number of people that the United States has. Count out one-half of your people squares and put them aside. The remaining squares show the population of Japan. Try to put these squares into the area marked as Japan in the country box. Are the squares crowded together? Are there open spaces? Do the squares overlap?

   ____

7. Describe in your own words what population density might be like in Japan.

   ____

   ____

LUXURIES IN JAPAN

The table below presents information about items owned by the Japanese. Take a poll to see how many of the items in the chart members of your class own. On which items are there big differences between your class and Japan? Discuss reasons why this might be so.

Item	Number of Items Per 30 Households	
	In Japan	In your Class
Color Televisions	39	
Refrigerators	35	
Passenger Cars	24	
Stereos	19	
Microwave Ovens	12	
Video Recorders	6	
Pianos	5	
Room Air Conditioners	23	
Portable Heaters	48	

13. GOOD AND PLENTY

Introduction:

Americans have been accustomed to unlimited space and plentiful resources. Despite the heightened conservation awareness resulting from the oil embargo of the 1970s, we still tend to embrace this concept of abundance in our lifestyles and standard of living: with 6 percent of the world's population, the United States consumes 35 percent of the world's resources each year.

The Japanese case provides a useful contrast. Japan is a mountainous island country with severely limited space and few natural resources. These factors are reflected in the collective Japanese lifestyle and consciousness. Over centuries, the Japanese have adapted their needs and material expectations to fit geographic and environmental limits.

This activity uses the example of housing to focus student attention on the impact of lifestyles on space, resource, and energy consumption in Japan and the United States. Students consider the trade-offs in housing size to draw conclusions about resource and energy use in the two societies.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Collect, analyze, and compare data.

2. Compare and contrast housing styles and the energy and resource use implicit in these styles.

3. Consider trade-offs in energy and resource consumption.

4. Appreciate and discuss cause-and-effect relationships between economic and social factors and lifestyles.

5. Develop a global perspective on resource allocation and use.

Grade Level: 7-12

Teaching Time: 2 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handouts 13-1 and 13-2 for all students

Procedure:

1. Open this activity by focusing student attention on traditional American attitudes and values concerning land, space, and natural resources. Through definition and discussion of such historical themes and concepts as the "American Dream," the "Land of Plenty," and "Manifest Destiny," bring students to the recognition that American attitudes and lifestyles have traditionally been shaped by economic and geographic happenstance – the seemingly unlimited availability of space and resources in our country.

2. Explain that in this activity, students will use the contrasting case of resource and space availability in Japan to consider alternative lifestyles and develop a comparative perspective on resource allocation and use.

Activity developed by Lynn Parisi.

3. Present or review information on the geography of Japan, including country size, topography, arable and inhabitable land, population, and population density. Relevant data is presented in the **Teacher Background Notes**. Given geographic and environmental contrasts, what hypotheses can students suggest about differences between housing patterns in Japan and the United States? (Differences in house size and private yards, reflecting relative available space; variety of building materials and variation of production costs and sales prices, reflecting relative resource availability)

4. Have students complete Handout 13-1. Review findings in class.

5. Tell students to complete Table 1 on Handout 13-2 for homework. This assignment involves each student's measuring his or her own home. Establish the process for doing this with the class: students will need to measure each room in their homes separately, multiplying length by width to obtain square footage. They will then add the square footage of each room to determine the total size of their homes. Measurements need not be exact, but should be reasonable approximations.

6. Discuss the findings of the homework exercise in class. Were students' houses generally larger or smaller than the representative Japanese house? Remind students that in the Japanese statistics on Handout 13-1, they were looking at the average-size home for all of Japan. Take an average of the home sizes within the class. How does this statistic compare with the Japanese average? Do findings support student conjectures reached in question 4 on Handout 13-1?

7. Through class discussion, have students explain what larger house size means for American lifestyles – personal space, sense of privacy, sense of individual expression and individual rights, accumulation of material possessions, and so on. Explore student attitudes and values related to lifestyle. Possible questions are:

- Do students consider the size of their homes a luxury or necessity? An advantage or disadvantage? Why?
- Do they consider private yards, personal bedrooms, separate dining rooms, eat-in kitchens, playrooms, workshops, garages as necessities or luxuries?
- What do students consider a minimum livable space to be? Do they think their attitudes would be different if they lived in the city rather than suburb or country, or vice versa?
- How do living space and environment affect people's lives? (noise, music, private time)
- Do students perceive these things as advantages or disadvantages implicit in larger houses? Why?

8. Now, direct student attention to the geographic and economic implications of housing size by focusing on the space, resource, and energy costs of building and maintaining the additional living space typical of American homes. Students should complete the second part of Handout 13-2, working individually or in small groups.

9. On the board, compile student findings. Under heading 1, students might identify additional resources such as lumber, metals, piping, plastics, insulation materials, brick, and so on; under heading 2, more furniture, carpeting, appliances; under heading 3, electricity, heating fuel, water.

10. To close the activity, ask students what the consequences of building U.S.-sized houses vs. Japanese-sized houses are in terms of renewable and nonrenewable resources and plentiful vs. scarce resources. Possible questions are:

- Where do the additional resources needed to meet American housing demands come from? Has the United States traditionally been able to supply most of its own resources? Is it still able to? If not, upon whom do we depend to supply vital resources?
- Which of the resources on your list are renewable? Nonrenewable?
- How does U.S. consumption of resources affect world supplies and world markets?

- Has the uncontrolled consumption of resources ever caused significant trouble for the United States and its people? If so, when and how? (1970s oil embargo, continuing friction in the Mideast; water shortages and rationing in various regions periodically; and so on)
- In which country might you expect to find a greater consciousness of resource consumption or more successful efforts at resource conservation – one in which resources have typically been plentiful or one in which resources have been scarce?

Teacher Background Notes:

Geography of Japan. For Japan, as other countries, geography, topography, and climate influence where people live, how they earn a living, and the lifestyle they develop. Japan is a relatively small, mountainous island country. The total land area is 145,856 square miles, about the size of Montana. Most of the land is covered by forested mountains. Of the total land area, only about 22,000 square miles – or 15 percent of the land – is inhabitable or suitable for agriculture. Thus, the usable land in Japan is the approximate equivalent of West Virginia in size. Pressure on this land is intense, since it must be shared between the two vital needs of housing Japan's 121 million people and farming. The Japanese use every available space to grow food. In cities and suburbs, one can find small rice plots no bigger than the size of a classroom.

Comparative land and population statistics for Japan and the United States are as follows:

	Japan	**United States**
Land Area	145,856 sq. miles	3,615,054 sq. miles
Population	121 million (1985)	240 million (1986)
Usable Land	15 percent	46 percent
Population Density	840/sq. mile	64/sq. mile

Source: *World Almanac and Book of Facts 1987*. New York: Scripps Howard, 1987.

Resources. Japan has few critical natural resources. The country depends on imports for a full 82 percent of its energy needs. A total of 99.7 percent of Japanese oil comes from foreign countries. In addition to energy requirements, the Japanese import over 95 percent of the following resources necessary for manufacturing and industry: iron ore, copper, tin, aluminum, and nickel.

In comparison, the United States is dependent on imports for 12 percent of its energy resources. While the United States acquires approximately 32 percent of its oil from foreign countries, it supplies all of its own coal and almost all of its own natural gas. In industrial resources, the United States imports less than 50 percent of its iron ore and copper; 70 percent of lead and zinc; and over 90 percent of its tin and nickel.

Source: *Japan 1985: An International Comparison*. Tokyo: Keizai Koho Center, 1985.

JAPANESE HOUSING STATISTICS

Use the chart below to complete the questions about Japanese housing.

	Average for All Japan	**Tokyo**	**Northern Honshu**
Number of rooms per dwelling	4.74	3.91	5.53
Floor space per dwelling (square feet)	927	724	1228
Land area per dwelling (square feet)	2776	2238	--
Running water ratio (%)	93.7	96.4	--
Bathing facilities ratio (%)	88.1	83.7	--
Ownership ratio (%)	62.3	53.1	73.25
Rent per month in yen (per *tatami*: a unit of measure equal to 17.5 square feet)	1,625	2,447	--

Source: *Japan 1985: An International Comparison*. Tokyo: Keizai Koho Center, 1985. Page 88.

1. How big is the average Japanese home? ______________ square feet

2. How many rooms does the average Japanese house have?_______

3. How might you account for the difference in average house size between Tokyo and northern Honshu?

   ____

4. How many people are there in your family ? _____________

   Divide the number of people in your family into the total square footage of a Japanese home to reach an average total space per person for your family if you lived in Japan.

   ____

Do you think it would be possible for each member of your family to have his or her own bedroom?

____

5. What is the average monthly rent for the average house in Japan in yen?

____

Check your newspaper's financial section for the current exchange rate. Then calculate what the rent would be in U.S. dollars.

____

COMPARING HOUSES

In this exercise, you will compare the size of your home with the average-sized house in Japan. Fill in Table 1 as accurately as possible for homework. Table 2 will be completed in class.

Table 1

Personal Home Survey

Name of Room	Length	Width	Square Feet
Kitchen			
Living room			
Other:			
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			

Total square feet_______

Large houses have many advantages. They also involve trade-offs in terms of construction costs, maintenance, heating and cooling, resource and energy use, and so on. Fill in each column on Table 2 by listing the materials, products, and natural resources required to build and maintain the additional space required by the larger size of U.S. houses.

Table 2

Resources Used in Housing Construction and Maintenance

Construction Materials	Furnishings	Energy Needs

14. WHO'S ON FIRST?

Introduction:

In this map-based activity, students are introduced to relationships and connections between countries in different parts of the world. They are provided with an opportunity to check their perceptions of other nations while applying several frameworks for comparing countries.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Construct a realistic map of the world.
2. Read and interpret two thematic maps.
3. Compare Japan's population and gross national product with those of other nations.

Grade Level: 7-12

Teaching Time: 1-2 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handouts 14-1 and 14-2 for all students; world map; blank paper; pens

Procedure:

1. On a blank sheet of paper, have each student draw a map of the world representing the seven continents as accurately as possible according to size, shape, and location.

2. Have students label the following places on their maps: the seven continents, the United States, Japan.

3. Show students a map of the world and have them compare their drawings with this map. How accurate were they? Where were their maps most distorted or inaccurate? Were they able to locate the United States and Japan correctly?

4. Once students have finished this preliminary activity, they can begin to focus on Japan and its place in the world. Use the following questions to focus student attention:

   - Are students surprised by Japan's size or location?
   - Where is Japan located in relationship to the United States? To the rest of Asia? To Europe?
   - What U.S. states are located at about the same latitude as Japan?

5. Next, ask students if they know what the terms *population* and *gross national product* mean. Explain that population is the total number of people inhabiting a specific area, such as a country. Gross national product (GNP) is the total value of all the goods produced and services rendered by a country in one year. GNP is usually designated in U.S. dollars.

6. On a blank piece of paper, have each student list what he/she thinks are the top ten countries in the world according to population and the top ten countries according to GNP.

7. Once students have finished, the class should be polled as to their opinions. List the results on the board. Ask students to describe the information or experiences upon which they based their lists. How accurate do they think their lists are?

Activity developed by John Benegar.

8. Next, distribute Handout 14-1, "Two Views of the World," which contains a population map and a GNP map. Explain that these two maps are drawn according to a different scale than normal world maps. On map 1, the size of the country relates to its overall population; on map 2, country size reflects gross national product. Thus, the larger the size of the country on the map, the greater its population or gross national product compared to other countries.

9. Have students write on their maps the top ten countries in population and GNP (that is, those countries which are the largest in size on these particular maps).

10. When students have finished, ask them to compare their initial lists to those completed with the aid of the maps. Distribute Handout 14-2, which ranks the top ten countries in each category and lists their populations and GNPs. Use the following questions to stimulate discussion:

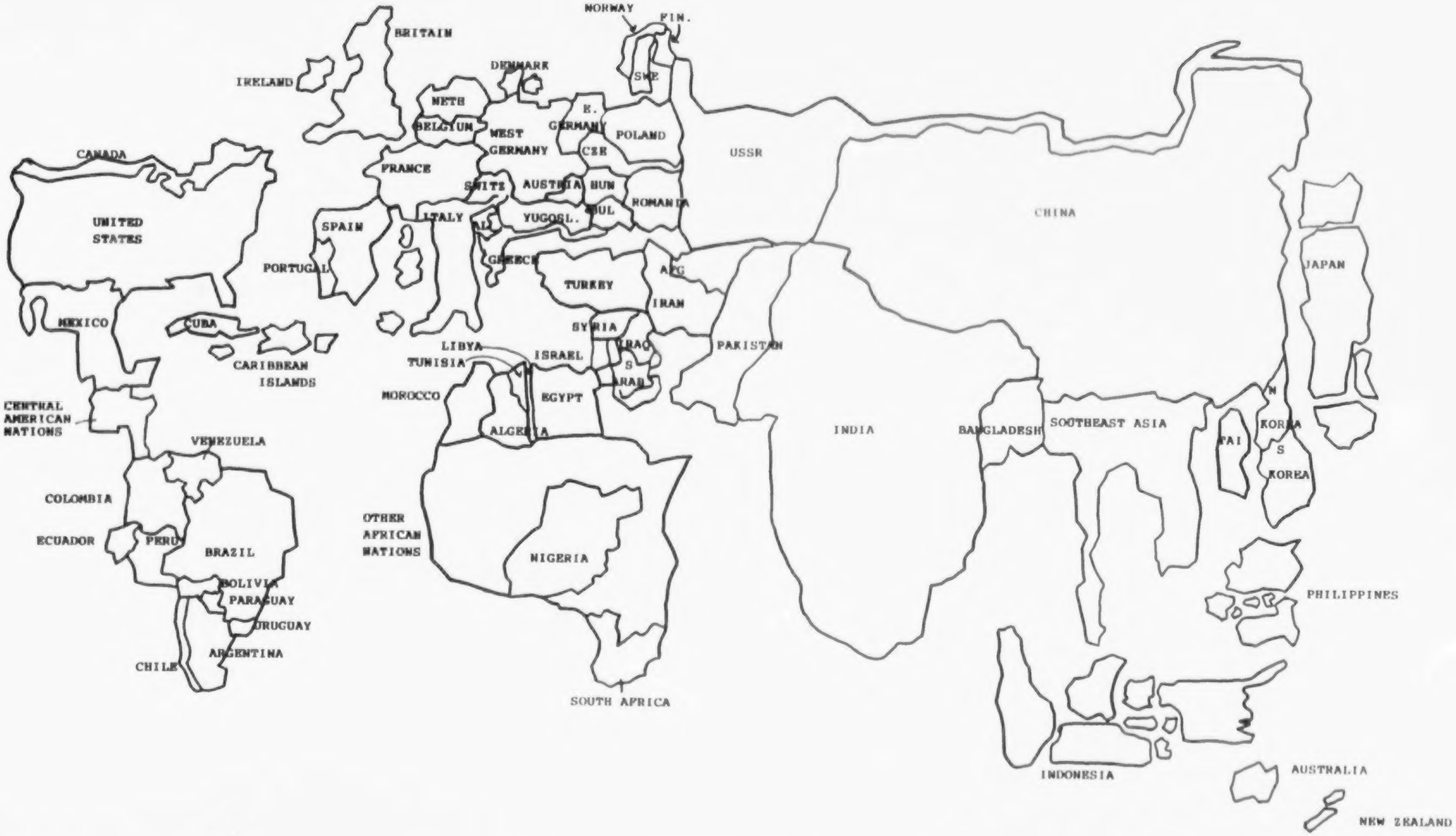
- How do the lists compare?
- Was the students' first list very accurate?
- Where does Japan fall on the lists?
- Did students include Japan on their lists? Why or why not?

11. Using a standard world map, have students compare Japan's size with that of other countries. Ask such questions as:

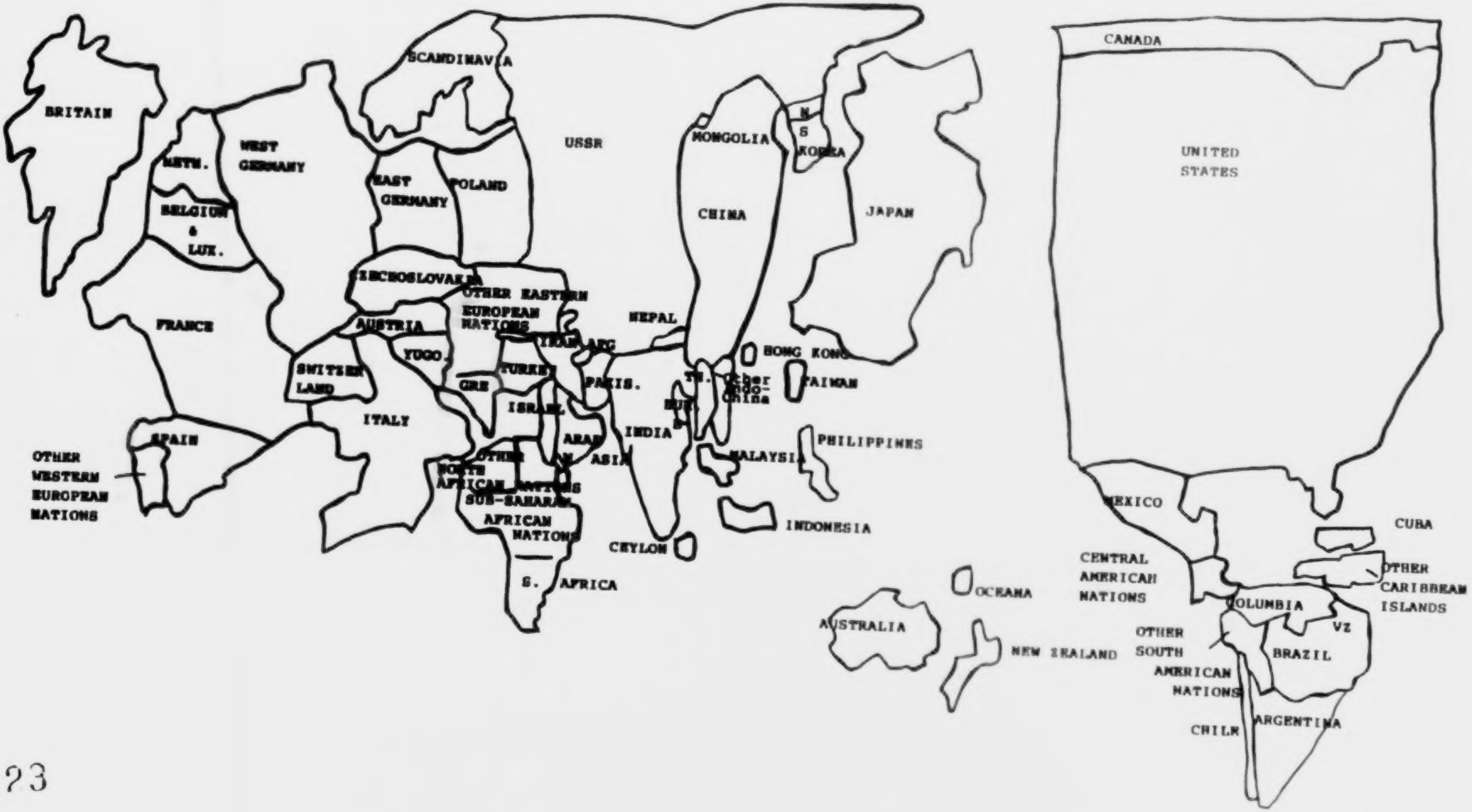
- Where does Japan rank with other countries in population and GNP?
- How do these rankings compare with Japan's rank in size (55th)?
- How do students think such a small island country could rank so highly in these two categories?
- What factors might account for the high GNP?

TWO VIEWS OF THE WORLD

THE WORLD ACCORDING TO POPULATION (1982)


NORWAY
FIN.
BRITAIN
DENMARK
SWE
IRELAND
NETH
E. GERMANY
BELGIUM
WEST GERMANY
POLAND
USSR
CANADA
CZE
FRANCE
SWITZ
AUSTRIA
HUN
ROMANIA
UNITED STATES
SPAIN
ITALY
YUGOSL.
BUL
CHINA
JAPAN
PORTUGAL
AL
GREECE
AFG
TURKEY
IRAN
MEXICO
CUBA
SYRIA
LIBYA
IRAQ
PAKISTAN
TUNISIA
ISRAEL
S ARAB
CARIBBEAN ISLANDS
MOROCCO
EGYPT
N KOREA
CENTRAL AMERICAN NATIONS
ALGERIA
INDIA
BANGLADESH
SOUTHEAST ASIA
TAI
S KOREA
VENEZUELA
COLOMBIA
OTHER AFRICAN NATIONS
ECUADOR
PERU
BRAZIL
NIGERIA
BOLIVIA
PARAGUAY
PHILIPPINES
URUGUAY
ARGENTINA
CHILE
SOUTH AFRICA
INDONESIA
AUSTRALIA
NEW ZEALAND

THE WORLD ACCORDING TO GNP


BRITAIN
NETH.
BELGIUM & LUX.
WEST GERMANY
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
SPAIN
OTHER WESTERN EUROPEAN NATIONS
ITALY
SCANDINAVIA
EAST GERMANY
POLAND
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
AUSTRIA
YUGO.
OTHER EASTERN EUROPEAN NATIONS
GRE
TURKEY
ISRAEL
IRAN
AFG
PAKIS.
ARAB ASIA
OTHER NORTH AFRICAN NATIONS
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICAN NATIONS
S. AFRICA
USSR
NEPAL
INDIA
CEYLON
MONGOLIA
CHINA
N KOREA
S KOREA
JAPAN
HONG KONG
TAIWAN
TH.
BUR.
Other Indo-China
MALAYSIA
PHILIPPINES
INDONESIA
OCEANA
AUSTRALIA
NEW ZEALAND
CANADA
UNITED STATES
MEXICO
CUBA
OTHER CARIBBEAN ISLANDS
CENTRAL AMERICAN NATIONS
COLUMBIA
VZ
BRAZIL
OTHER SOUTH AMERICAN NATIONS
CHILE
ARGENTINA

WHO'S ON FIRST

Top Ten Countries in Population (1985)

1. China (1 billion)
2. India (754 million)
3. USSR (275 million)
4. United States (238 million)
5. Indonesia (171 million)
6. Brazil (136 million)
7. Japan (120 million)
8. Bangladesh (100 million)
9. Pakistan (98 million)
10. Nigeria (90 million)

Top Ten Countries in GNP (1985)

1. United States ($4,309 billion or 4.3 trillion)
2. USSR ($1,600 billion or 1.6 trillion)
3. Japan ($1,153 billion or 1.1 trillion)
4. France ($919 billion)
5. West Germany ($658 billion)
6. Great Britain ($381 billion)
7. Italy ($340 billion)
8. Canada ($312 billion)
9. China ($261 billion)
10. Brazil ($211 billion)

15. AMBASSADORS AND FOREIGN POLICY: THE CASE OF MIKE MANSFIELD

Introduction:

The ambassador who conducts this country's foreign policy abroad must be very knowledgeable and responsible. Yet, most citizens have only a vague understanding of the ambassador's role in representing the United States and influencing foreign policy decisions.

In this activity, students learn about ambassadors and how they are selected and trained. By examining a speech given by U.S. Ambassador to Japan Mike Mansfield, students also learn about trade relations between the United States and Japan.

The activity can be used with a U.S. history unit on international trade and current world issues. It can also supplement study of the Department of State or international trade in government classes.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Discuss the many different roles that ambassadors play in representing the United States.

2. Identify how ambassadors are selected and trained and the differences between career foreign service officers and political appointees.

3. Examine trade issues that are critically important to Japan and the United States.

4. Analyze the protectionist and free-trade arguments from the perspectives of the United States and Japan and recognize foreign policy options available to the United States.

Grade Level: 9-12

Teaching Time: 1-2 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handouts 15-1, 15-2, and 15-3 for all students

Procedure:

1. Begin the activity by asking the students to brainstorm ideas on what they think an ambassador does. Write their ideas on the board and compare their ideas with the following list of daily activities of an ambassador.

To strengthen ties between the United States and host country and to promote political, economic, and social stability, ambassadors:

- Conduct meetings of the embassy staff.
- Conduct press briefings for members of the news media from the host country and with foreign bureaus of major U.S. newspapers, TV stations, and newsmagazines.
- Attend receptions and dinners and represent the President at state functions.
- Give speeches.

Activity developed by Jacquelyn Johnson and Barbara Miller; adapted from *Teacher's Resource Guide: Lessons on Current U.S. Foreign Policy Issues for Secondary Social Studies Courses* (New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1987). Used by permission of the publisher.

- Meet with government officials of the host country to discuss policy questions and meet with private individuals.
- Gain in-depth knowledge of the host country and government activities.
- Visit consulates.

Discuss these duties and any questions that the students may have about the job of an ambassador. Handout 15-1 can be shared with the students to help them better understand an ambassador's responsibilities.

2. Next, distribute Handout 15-2, "A Profile of Mike Mansfield." After the students have completed the reading, discuss the following questions:

- In what ways is Mike Mansfield unique as a U.S. ambassador?
- What past experiences does he bring to the job that help him in his current role?
- Should an ambassador's role be limited to representing the interests and policies of the United States, or should an ambassador like Mike Mansfield have the freedom to act as a mediator in resolving differences between the United States and Japan?

3. Distribute Handout 15-3, "Mike Mansfield on the U.S.-Japanese Trade Relationship," which defines and explains the major trade issues, as identified by Ambassador Mansfield. In discussing the reading, students may need additional background information on protectionism, trade restrictions, the U.S. trade deficit and its relationship to the strong U.S. dollar and the Federal budget deficit. Also discuss what the students think about Ambassador Mansfield's speech. Is it *too* balanced? If so, what should be the role of an ambassador—to increase mutual understanding between the two nations by presenting both countries' perspectives or simply to advocate and represent the views of the administration he serves?

4. Conclude this activity by having the students collect recent news articles on the U.S.-Japanese trade relationship. Has protectionist sentiment increased or decreased in Congress and why? What has been the effect of the weakening of the U.S. dollar on the U.S. trade deficit? What do your students see as the future for the U.S.-Japan trade relationship?

THE AMBASSADOR'S LIFE

Ambassadors play many roles, from diplomat to businessperson. As the personal representatives of their nation's leaders, ambassadors speak with the voice of their country's highest authority. They can expect friendship or hostility, depending on how the United States is viewed by the government and people of the host country. As a representative of the United States *and* an actor in the foreign-policy making process, a successful ambassador requires a great deal of skill, knowledge, and, in this day of terrorist threats to American lives and property, courage.

The Ambassador's Job

An ambassador is the direct contact person for all projects and activities being carried out in the host country by the U.S. government. He or she is also indirectly responsible for U.S. private citizens, including those working in business, nonprofit organizations, education, and cultural events in the host country. The ambassador and his or her staff are always on call—from the tourist who gets into a scrape with the local authorities and says "I demand to see my ambassador," to the endless receiving lines at high-level receptions. They are responsible for explaining their country's policies to the government and people of the host country, and for reporting home promptly and in depth on all important developments and trends.

The Ambassador as Symbol

While representing the President of the United States and carrying out governmental policies, ambassadors are also symbols of the American people and way of life. It has been said that, "An ambassador is the personification of the virtues and vices of his/her nation." Whether participating in a social gathering in the capital city, touring the country or conducting a meeting of business leaders, the ambassador's character and attitude are watched closely by all who wish to find out more about the United States and who want to influence U.S. foreign policy. Being an ambassador is a 24-hour job, and no area of an ambassador's life, including relations with family and personal friends, can be disassociated from his or her role as a diplomat while in the host country. Tact, discretion, grace, dignity, energy, health, discipline, and, above all, patience are important assets for any diplomat. For the ambassador, these qualities are indispensable.

The Changing Role of the Ambassador

Many of the personal qualifications for ambassador have remained unchanged over the centuries, but there have been some changes in the ambassador's relationship to the home government in the past 100 years. The invention of the steamship, railroad, telegraph, telephone, computer, and space satellite have put U.S. ambassadors in much more immediate contact with operations in Washington, D.C. Whereas ambassadors were once relied upon for most, if not all, communications between Washington and foreign heads of state, modern technology, such as the "hot line" between the White House and the Kremlin, has made direct contact possible.

As a result of speedier communication and increased meetings between government leaders, the power of the ambassador to make important decisions about relations between two countries has diminished. Though the ambassador often plays an important role in advising his or her government, decisions today are usually made by high officials at home rather than by the ambassador. The ambassador carries out policy; he or she does not make it.

The Changeless Role of the Ambassador

Throughout history the ambassador's role has been a challenging one that tests character. The ambassador must be as well-informed as possible about the history, culture, and society of the host country, preferably gaining knowledge firsthand by visiting all the host country's regions and meeting with representatives of all social classes. The ambassador must be sympathetic to the achievements, problems, hopes, and fears of the host country without ever compromising the national interests of the United States. He or she must be able to express criticism of the host country without losing the friendship or trust of its government and be able to transmit host country criticism to U.S. officials without loss of credibility. In addition to these diplomatic skills, he or she must be able to run an embassy and direct the staff. A successful ambassador must possess many talents in order to represent U.S. interests and promote positive relations. Given the many demands of the job, it is clear that an ambassador must be a remarkable individual.

A PROFILE OF MIKE MANSFIELD

Mike Mansfield, now past 80, has served as the ambassador to Japan since his appointment in 1977 by President Jimmy Carter. At the time he was appointed, there was increasing friction between the United States and Japan over trade issues. As one of America's respected "elder statesmen," his appointment was considered a timely and wise diplomatic move.

Prior to becoming U.S. ambassador to Japan, Mike Mansfield served as the Majority Leader of the Democratic-controlled Senate from 1961 to 1977. First elected to the House of Representatives in 1943, he served on the House Foreign Affairs Committee and later, as a Senator, on the Senate Foreign Relations Committee. With a strong academic background as a professor of Far Eastern history, he advised five presidents on Asian affairs.

In the following *Washington Post* article (November 28, 1980), two foreign correspondents explore the basis for Ambassador Mansfield's success.

Mansfield Earns Respect as Tokyo Envoy

by Howard Simons and William Chapman

TOKYO, Nov. 27 – Mike Mansfield has the best of both worlds. He is officially U.S. ambassador to Japan. But the Japanese see him as their ambassador to the United States, and both sides seem to like his way of representing them.

"He is trusted by the Japanese," said Shizuo Saito, Japan's former ambassador to the United Nations. "The Japanese people think he is influential, both with the president and with Congress. And we think he is reliable...."

Since he came to Tokyo in June 1977, Mansfield's tenure in Tokyo has been an almost unblemished love affair. From the Japanese point of view, he is a heavy-hitter – a man with influence back in Washington, sent to a country that often feels ignored by its principal ally. For the Japanese, he has been more a mediator than a diplomat. He has occasionally chided them gently on such matters as trade and defense, telling them what they ought to do for their own good, but his great value to Japan has been in straightening out Washington's errant ways....

Excerpted from "Mansfield Earns Repect as Tokyo Envoy," by Howard Simons and William Chapman in *The Washington Post*, November 28, 1980. Copyright © 1980 by *The Washington Post*, Inc. Reprinted by permission.

There have been instances in which Mansfield's way clashed with Washington's. A persistent view in the White House and Pentagon has been that Japan will not do anything right unless its knuckles are rapped, Mansfield's touch is softer.

"I think that if you want Japan to do what we want them to do, we should let them do it in their own way and not threaten or demand or pressure," he said.

He thinks Japan has, in fact, supported U.S. positions more firmly than European allies in the cases of sanctions against both Iran and the Soviet Union.

"Of all our friends, they have been the most supportive. They've also paid the biggest price. For example, when they refused to pay that $2.50 extra for [Iranian] oil last March, two days later it [the export of Iranian oil] was cut off. It's still cut off. That's 13 percent of their imports...."

The Japanese consider Mansfield, 77, a *genro*—a wise elder who acts from many years of experience. Many of Japan's political leaders are in their 60s and 70s and feel comfortable with a man of his age. Government leaders appreciate mostly his connections back in Washington....

Mansfield deals with the Japanese as he did with his old colleagues in the Senate, slowly and patiently. His enjoyment of the job is total. He is at his desk by 7:30 most mornings, before most of the embassy people have arrived, and he is erect and alert, although signs of fatigue are likely to show by late afternoon. His speech is blunt and direct, and he rarely speaks off the record with reporters....

His greatest joy, he says, is "just getting away from the manyfold pressures in Washington." In Tokyo, the problems come one at a time for Mansfield, and there is more opportunity for slow consideration of each.

The ambassador looks back on his country critically. Americans have grown complacent, he believes, and the lack of civility bothers him a great deal. He puts it all into a few succinct phrases:

"Too many fat people. Too much crime. Too little security. Not enough pride or courtesy or politeness. Too many people for themselves. Too willing to 'let George do it,' but they don't want to be personally affected."

Japanese, on the other hand, hang together as a people. "Deep down, they know how vulnerable their country is strategically, economically, and when the going gets tough...they get in and produce more—because they have to. They have pride in what they do. It pays off for their country. I think we ought to have pride in what we do."

MIKE MANSFIELD ON THE U.S.-JAPANESE TRADE RELATIONSHIP

The following remarks were delivered by Ambassador Mike Mansfield before the Japan National Press Club on July 12, 1985. As you read, keep the following questions in mind:

1. What are the "serious strains" in the U.S.-Japanese relationship as described by Ambassador Mansfield?

2. What is protectionism and why is support for it growing in the United States?

3. Describe the things that Ambassador Mansfield thinks the United States must do to bring more balance to the U.S.-Japanese trade relationship.

4. What is the relationship between the strength of the U.S. dollar, the growing federal budget deficit, and the trade deficit?

5. Describe the things that Ambassador Mansfield thinks Japan must do to bring more balance to the U.S.-Japanese trade relationship.

A Balanced U.S.-Japan Trade Relationship

Remarks by Ambassador Mike Mansfield
Tokyo, July 12, 1985
(as prepared for delivery)

Thank you for this opportunity to speak before such a prestigious group as the Japan National Press Club. You are all aware of my strong views on the importance of the U.S.-Japan relationship to the peace and prosperity of the Pacific region. And I am sure you have heard often my strong conviction that the next century will be the Century of the Pacific. This is where the action is and where it will be in the future.

Because I feel so strongly about this U.S.-Japan relationship and about the Pacific region, I am compelled to be frank with you today about the very serious strains in our trade relations. We have had trade differences since I arrived here eight years ago, and for many years before that. But the present situation is something new, something very dangerous, and something that causes me deep concern.

Japan should not underestimate the present threat of protectionism in the United States. There are now more protectionist bills pending in Congress than we have seen in 50 years, and the likelihood of some of those bills being passed in the near future is high—very high. Many business groups in America are now abandoning their traditional support of free trade in favor of legislation restricting Japanese imports. "Reciprocity" is the catchword being heard in Washington these days.

It would be a serious mistake to think Congress is only crying wolf when it talks of retaliatory trade legislation against Japan. My recent visit to Washington convinced me that the pressure for trade protection is the greatest that I can recall. Both the U.S. and Japan share responsibility for this situation. Both must share in the task of finding a solution.

Our economic relationship has become so important—to the U.S. and Japan as well as the rest of the free world—that we simiply must not let it be damaged by protectionism and the closing of markets. Just over a decade ago, U.S. trade with all of East Asia amounted to $42 billion. By 1983—nine years later—bilateral trade between the U.S. and Japan alone totaled over $64 billion. In 1984, our two-way trade soared to $84 billion, and this growth is continuing, creating benefits for export industries on both sides of the Pacific.

The U.S. market has become ever more vital to the Japanese economy. In 1983, 29 percent of Japan's total exports went to the United States. In 1984, the U.S. share of Japan's global exports increased to 35.2 percent, and by April of this year we were taking 38.9 percent of Japan's exports. At the same time, the importance of the Japanese market to the U.S. economy should not be overlooked, for in 1984, Japan imported $23.6 billion worth of American products, an increase of 8.8 percent over 1983, making Japan the largest market for U.S. exports next to Canada.

As our economies have grown more interdependent, the size of the trade problem between us has also grown. The U.S. trade deficit with Japan in 1981 was $18 billion, considered huge and unacceptable at the time. By 1983, the trade deficit had increased to over $21 billion. Then in 1984, our trade deficit with Japan soared to an enormous $37 billion. It appears that the 1985 trade deficit could reach as high as $47 billion or more. As a result, the rumblings in the Congress about trade retaliation against Japan have become roars.

Protectionism is not the solution, but in recent months the threat of a trade war has become very real. We simply must solve our difficult trade issues. The question is how. First and foremost, we have to be honest with ourselves, and admit that we both share responsibility for the tensions now before us. We must get away from rhetoric and get down to reality, on both sides.

First, let me talk about what the U.S. must do. We need to put our trade problem with Japan into the proper context of our trade problem with the entire world. We had a global trade deficit of $123.3 billion in 1984, of which Japan accounted for slightly less than 30 percent. While our deficit with Japan is increasing, our deficit with the rest of the world is increasing even faster. In 1980, we had a trade *surplus* of $20.3 billion with Western Eruope. By 1984, that had changed to a *deficit* of $16.9 billion. In 1980, we had a *surplus* of $1.3 billion with Latin America. By 1984, that had changed to a *deficit* of nearly $18 billion. Last year we had a $20.4 billion deficit with Canada, and an $11.1 billion deficit with Taiwan.

What this means is that we cannot simply blame Japan for our trade problem, because that problem is worldwide. While we press Japan to open its markets, we must also look at the motes in our own eyes, and realize much of the deficit is of our own making.

Probably the most important obstacle to American exports is the high value of the U.S. dollar. As U.S. Trade Representative Clayton Yeutter recently stated, the strong U.S. dollar lies at the root of the current trade problem. The strong dollar is, in turn, caused in large part by our huge budget deficit. In 1984, the United States government paid $111 billion just to meet its interest payments on its national debt. The President's 1986 budget message estimated that by next year it will cost us over $142 billion just to pay the debt interest—that is just to pay interest, not to pay off the debt itself.

With such large borrowing by the government in capital markets, interest rates have been high for several years....Such high interest rates attract foreign capital to the U.S. in record amounts. This reinforces the high value of the dollar, pricing U.S. products out of export markets....No matter how good our products may be, others are not going to buy them if they are too expensive....

There are other areas where congressional action is needed. We have legislation preventing the export of surplus Alaskan oil. Japan and East Asia want to buy it; the Administration would like to be able to sell it; but the law prevents it. Such sales would put a big dent in our trade deficit with Japan. Only action by Congress can make this possible....

The private sector in the U.S. should also take action. American productivity has to increase at a faster pace if we are to hold our own, or I should say if we are to regain lost ground....

We also need to see better labor/management relations in the U.S. Great progress has been made in this area in recent years, but all too often we still see an adversarial relationship which drains the productive energy of everyone involved. The same holds true for business/government relations. Only recently have we really started to work together to solve our problems, but we must do more.

Our companies also need to do more to provide the highest quality at the lowest prices, and more attentive follow-up service once our products are sold. This is particularly so in a market as competitive as Japan, where the customer expects to have a long-term relationship with the merchandiser.

Now let me talk about what Japan needs to do. Japan should realize–and I believe it does–that its economy is now an integrated part of the world economy and that this entails heavy responsibilities to its trading partners....I was...very impressed by Prime Minister Nakasone's recent statement that Japan will act on its own initiative in opening its markets to foreign competition. As the Prime Minister put it, "If there is anything we ought to do we will work hard to do it, without being told to do so by other countries." Such leadership is going to be very important in solving our problems.

The days of protecting industry from fair competition should end. What we want is access to your markets–not guarantees that we will sell; that is up to us. We simply want the same opportunities in your markets that you have in our markets–and you should never forget the opportunities you have in the U.S., because for you the U.S. is the market that counts. We admit the macroeconomic problems–such as the value of the dollar–which make it difficult for us here. Nevertheless, the problems which we have in the U.S. must not be used as an excuse for preventing free and fair competition in the Japanese marketplace....

Again, access is the key to protecting Japan's foreign markets–access to Japan's markets. Our trade deficit is likely to continue even if Japan's markets are fully opened, but once the U.S. and other nations are convinced that we are able to compete here on a fair basis, then the current trade frictions will subside. All that the U.S. asks for is fair access and opportunity in Japan, nothing more and nothing less.

Japan can do a number of things to ensure such access....Across the board elimination of tariffs on *all* industrial items would be real progress in opening Japan's markets, because many key sectors are still protected by carefully targeted tariffs....

The unnecessarily high tariffs on agricultural products should also be considered for elimination. There is no reason Japan should have a 25 percent duty on grapefruit, and high tariffs or quotas on tomato puree, walnuts, chocolates, wines, and many other agricultural products....

It would be a mistake to think that short-term stop-gap measures are going to solve the problems between us. An attitude change is needed–a change I think we may now be seeing–a change away from the idea that Japanese companies should buy only from Japanese suppliers, even if the foreign competition may be better.

Japan needs to accept the idea that it should import much more, especially manufactured products. The strong industrial base in Japan can accept competition, and can be more fully a part of the world economy if Japan increases imports and sets a new goal of balance and stability in its world trading relationships....

Action is needed across the board, anywhere and everywhere that we find barriers to free and fair competition from imports. Under Prime Minister Nakasone's leadership Japan has begun to move. We in the United States have not moved fast enough or far enough to correct our trade problems, but neither has Japan moved fast enough or far enough in opening its markets as a full member of the industrialized free world. We must both do what is necessary to correct the trade imbalance. The time for rhetoric is over, the time for action is now. The world is watching us. We must not fail to do what needs to be done – by both of us – and the sooner the better.

16. THE JAPAN CONNECTION IN OUR COMMUNITY

Introduction:

In this activity, students analyze such readily-available local resource materials as phone books, store catalogs, newspapers, and advertising flyers to identify items, ideas, and areas in which their own culture and Japanese culture have blended.

Objectives: At the conclusion of the activity, students will be able to:

1. Identify examples of Japanese culture and influence in their own community.

2. Appreciate and explain ways in which their own and another culture interact and influence one another.

Grade Level: 4-9

Teaching Time: 1-2 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handout 16-1 for all students; local phone books, merchandise and department store catalogs, local newspapers, local store advertisement flyers

Procedure:

1. Introduce the activity by asking students if they think their own community is tied to Japan in any way. If so, in what ways? Explore obvious connections (Japanese restaurants) and less obvious connections (Japanese products).

2. Explain that in this activity students will analyze a variety of local resource materials to explore the degree to which their own town interacts with and is connected to Japan. Distribute Handout 16-1, as well as resource materials previously collected, and assign pairs or small groups of students to complete the worksheet.

3. Review findings in class in terms of economic, sociocultural, and political connections. What connections did students find? What examples of Japanese culture did they find in their community? What were their sources? What connections were a surprise to students? Have students give examples of Japanese culture that have become adopted by or blended into their own everyday culture. Introduce the term *interdependence* and ask students to explain ways in which their own community and Japan are interdependent.

Activity developed by Phyllis Clarke.

THE JAPAN CONNECTION IN OUR COMMUNITY

Find connections with Japan in our own community. Use the most appropriate source, such as the newspaper, telephone book, or catalogs to locate items, ideas, and areas in which our two cultures have blended.

The following categories may give you some ideas as you begin to search. Be sure to identify the source where you found the connection.

	Connection	Source	Page
Food			
Transportation			
Technology			
Religion-Churches			
Language			
Sports/Recreation			
Other			

17. JAPAN IN YOUR STATE

Introduction:

In this activity, students interact with one another as they play a bingo game designed to develop initial awareness of Japanese cultural influences in their community and state. Bingo squares feature questions concerning names of Japanese foods and people, as well as Japanese products and industries available in the community and state. A bingo board displaying questions relating to the Japanese presence in Colorado is offered as a prototype for teachers to adapt to their own state.

Objectives: At the conclusion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Identify examples of Japanese influence in their community.
2. Recognize and describe the impact of Japanese culture on their own lives.

Grade Level: 4-9

Teaching Time: 1 class period

Materials: Copies of teacher-prepared handout, "Japan in (Your State)," for all students

Advance Preparation:

Using the "Japan in Colorado" bingo board provided in the **Teacher Background Notes** as a model, prepare a bingo board containing questions about Japanese words, well-known Japanese products, Japanese companies, stores, restaurants, and so on, in your community. The phone book (both white pages and classified section) and the local Chamber of Commerce can be used as sources of information for the bingo board.

Procedure:

1. To introduce this activity, ask students if they can think of any ways in which Japanese culture affects their lives. Explain that during this activity, students will look at the influence of Japan and Japanese culture on their lives and their community.

2. Distribute the handout, "Japan in (Your State)," to students. Explain that students will circulate around the room, asking classmates to provide answers for the questions in the squares on their sheets. Students will provide oral definitions, but must then sign their names to the squares for which they provide the definition. One's signature will make that student responsible for a definition during class review. *Students may sign another classmate's bingo sheet only once.* In addition, each student may sign his/her own bingo sheet only once.

3. A student "wins" the bingo game when his or her bingo sheet is filled with signatures. Teachers may check the "winning" bingo sheet by asking the students who provided signatures to answer questions for the rest of the class.

4. To conclude the activity, students should make a list of 20 items that show the influence of Japanese culture on their lives and community. Many of the items on their lists can be Japanese products.

Activity developed by Reny Sieck and Mina Temby.

Follow-up Activities:

1. Using newspaper and magazine advertising, students can create a collage of logos and pictures of Japanese products sold in the United States.

2. Students can bring in current newspaper articles on United States/Japan trade for a class bulletin board.

Teacher Background Notes:

Japan in Colorado

Model Bingo Board

Name a restaurant specializing in Japanese food.	Name a sport enjoyed in Denver and Tokyo.	What is Denver's sister city in Japan?	Name two popular Japanese 4 wheel drive cars.	How do you say "Thank You" in Japanese?
Name a popular Japanese food you can buy in this state.	A Japanese company with offices in Colorado is __________.	Name two products Sony sells in Colorado.	What is Colorado's sister-state in Japan?	Find someone in class who is wearing something Japanese.
A Colorado-made product sold in Japan is __________.	A Japanese motorcycle maker is __________.	FREE	Name someone who has visited Japan.	Find someone who owns a Japanese stereo.
What is Sakura Square?	What is the name of Denver's annual Japan Festival?	Find someone who knows a Japanese artform.	Name a Japanese martial art.	Who is the Japanese Prime Minister?
Who owns a Japanese camera?	Who has eaten with chopsticks?	Whose parents own a Japanese car?	Name a Japanese product in your home.	Name a famous Japanese-American skier.

JAPAN IN ____________________

		FREE		

18. WORKING FOR JAPAN, INC.: A COMMUNITY DECISION-MAKING ACTIVITY

Introduction:

Healthy economic and political relations with Japan are vital to our country. Economic interdependence between Japan and the United States continues to grow, as Japanese manufacturers establish plants in the United States and U.S. corporations and individual states seek to establish ties with Japan. As our interactions with Japan continue to intensify, it will become increasingly important that American students acquire a sound knowledge of that nation and its policies as well as an appreciation and awareness of U.S.-Japan interdependence.

In this activity, students take the role of local and state government representatives, businesspeople, and community members to consider the issues, strategies, and consequences of attracting a Japanese company to their town.

Objectives: Upon completion of this activity, students will be able to:

1. Create an economic and social profile of their own community.

2. Identify and evaluate changes that might result from a Japanese company's locating in their own community.

3. Identify the concerns and needs of a Japanese company seeking to establish a manufacturing center in the United States.

4. Describe some benefits of diversifying and internationalizing the local economy and society.

5. Identify factors that influence a multinational company's decision on where to locate production facilities.

6. Take and defend a position.

Grade Level: 7-12

Teaching Time: 2-3 class periods

Materials: Copies of Handouts 18-1 and 18-2 for all students; newspapers; phone books

Procedure:

1. Introduce the activity by providing students with a brief definition of a multinational corporation: a large corporation that produces and/or sells its goods or services in a number of countries around the world. Give or solicit examples of U.S. firms that fit the definition of multinational corporation. (For example, Coca-Cola, which produces and sells beverages throughout the world; General Motors and Ford, with assembly plants in Mexico, Brazil, New Zealand, West Germany, Venezuela, and other countries; American Express and Visa, with banking services around the world)

2. Ask students for reasons why a U.S. company like Ford would want to establish factories outside of the country. Guide students toward responses concerning lower pay scales in some countries, lower taxes, transportation costs to markets, and so on. Why would the host country and its citizens want a foreign country to establish factories within its borders? How might such a factory benefit the workers and economies of these countries?

Activity developed by Lynn Parisi.

3. Ask students to consider what factors they would look for if they were going to move to another town, state, or country. What kinds of stores, shopping, housing, schools, climate, and so on would they want to have?

4. Explain that in the past several years, more and more Japanese multinational corporations have been building manufacturing facilities in the United States. Examples are Honda, which builds cars for U.S. sales in Ohio; Nissan with a plant in Tennessee, and so on. In all cases, the Japanese companies chose the sites for their factories after months of studying different towns throughout the United States.

5. Explain that in this activity students will analyze the character of their own community as well as the general needs and concerns of Japanese corporations seeking to build factories in the United States. Students will take the roles of local community leaders and citizens to decide if their town should adopt a policy to encourage Japanese industry to locate in their community.

6. Through an initial community research component, students prepare a profile of their own town. This is a necessary first step in evaluating whether the town would benefit from and meet the needs of a Japanese factory. Prior to distributing the community profile worksheet, teachers may choose to lead students in a brainstorming session to identify the economic, social, political, and environmental categories that should be included in such a profile. As a group, brainstorm community resources students might turn to for the needed information. You may wish to have newspapers and telephone books available for this purpose.

7. Distribute Handout 18-1 and go over each category with students. Students may then be divided into four small groups, with each one responsible for gathering information on one principal category of the community profile sheet. Allow students class and homework time to compile the information.

8. Allow 1/2 class period for groups to meet and organize their information. As a whole, the class should then share their findings to create a comprehensive community profile sheet. As each group presents its information, consider implications of their findings. Possible points to discuss are:

- Does the town already have factories? Would factories fit the economic character of the town?
- Is there an unemployment problem in the town? How could it be remedied?
- Does the town have an ethnically diverse population? Are there other foreign national populations within the town? Is there evidence that a variety of ethnic groups can live together comfortably in this town?
- Is the school system a good one? Does it have the facilities and programs to incorporate a non-English-speaking student population?
- Is there adequate and affordable housing for an influx of people to the town?

9. Introduce the role play activity by explaining that students will take on the personalities of particular persons in their community to consider whether their town should adopt a policy of encouraging Japanese companies to locate factories there. Assign students the following roles:

City Council (decision-making body) (5-6 students)
Mayor or City Manager
Director of local unemployment compensation office
Social Services representative
High school social studies teacher
Elementary school principal
English-as-a-second-language teacher
President of school board
Member of Chamber of Commerce
Local restaurant owner
Owner of clothes shop in the local shopping mall

Supermarket employee
Car salesperson
Environmental protection agency employee
Skilled factory worker(s)
Unskilled factory worker(s)
Unemployed person(s)
Factory manager(s)

10. Ask each student to consider the following questions from the perspective of the role he/she represents. Students should refer to the community profile sheet to help them answer their questions.

- How would our town change if a Japanese company were to build a factory employing 500 workers?
- Would my job, my life, and my family's lives be affected? If so, how?
- Which of these changes would be positive? Which would be negative?

11. Hold a city council meeting to discuss the issue: "Should our town adopt a policy to encourage Japanese factories to locate here?" The five students on the council should hear testimony, pro and con, from all community members. Explain to council members that they should ask for evidence in four categories – economic impact, social impact, political impact, and environmental impact – and should ask first for positive then negative changes in each category. After all evidence has been compiled from citizens, the council should meet for five minutes to weigh evidence and reach a decision. The city council should then present its decision, with reasons, to the class.

12. (Optional) To extend the activity, distribute Handout 18-2, which contains a variety of newspaper articles describing Japanese firms that have located around the United States. Have students read the articles and, individually or as a class, identify factors that influenced corporations to locate in a particular town or state. Students should mention government policy, town hospitality, schools, transportation, tax structure, or business environment. Compile a list on the board.

Next, ask students to consider, based on their own community profile and role play, whether they think their town could meet a Japanese firm's needs.

13. (Optional) If the students voted to encourage Japanese industry during the role play, have students work in small groups to prepare public relations materials to highlight the positive economic, social, political, and environmental aspects of their town. Materials should be designed to convince Japanese firms to locate in their town.

COMMUNITY PROFILE SHEET

Economy

Industries and factories

Services

Academic institutions

Agriculture

Unemployment rate

Society

Population

Population density

Ethnic composition

Foreign national population

Social and cultural facilities

dance companies

theater groups

symphonies

movie houses

major sports teams

School system

size

state ranking

problems

Housing

single family

multiple family

own/rent

Crime rate

Any social problems

Government Policy

State taxes on business and industry

Local taxes on business and industry

Community growth policy

INDIANA CULTURAL BRIDGE LURES JAPANESE PLANT

By Michael Tackett

Jackson Bailey, a local Japan scholar with a Harvard degree, calls it the "plus factor."

It is something different that this blue-collar community of 40,000 did to bring the Sanyo Mfg. Corp. to town, an effort its leaders hope will be only the first success in luring Japanese business to a Midwest area hard hit by a shrinking manufacturing and farming base.

Instead of laying out a package of financial incentives, Richmond leaders tried to build a cultural bridge. As a foundation they used the relationship established in the 1890s when Quaker missionaries from Richmond's Earlham College started a student exchange program with the prestigious Waseda University in Tokyo.

Bailey, who has directed the Japan studies program at the college since 1959 and is fluent in Japanese, helped business leaders devise a plan that relied on the school's Japanese-speaking faculty and students and on the town to develop an understanding of Japanese customs and habits.

Some Sanyo officials downplayed the college's and city leaders' role, saying the company was driven strictly by financial considerations such as the rare opportunity to buy an existing plant and immediately start turning out its own products, refrigerators and musical compact discs.

"It [the town's effort to adapt to the Japanese culture] was nice, and it has helped out a lot," said Ken Ozaki, general manager of the first of two Sanyo divisions here, which opened in March, 1986. "But it was a business decision."

But some city leaders said they were told privately by Sanyo that their cultural-based approach stood out among the four towns that had vied for the company's approval.

"Sure, it was cold hard numbers," said Stanley Vigran, one of the local businessmen who pushed the Japan Connection.

However, William McDermott, the head of the city's economic development department, noted, "Anytime a Japanese company comes through a community as part of the selection process, they are looking for tangible and intangible things, for feelings they get from people."

Fifteen months ago, Sanyo completed the purchase of a two-building, 100-acre complex from the D & M Co., which had a dishwasher plant in one building and a small refrigerator plant run by a subsidiary in the other.

D & M had supplied Sanyo with components for its own dishwashers, but when the Japanese company suggested purchasing the facility, the Richmond manufacturer went to town officials for advice on how to deal with the proposal.

A plan already was in place. In 1981, Vigran and other business leaders said, they realized that Richmond was losing jobs, losing its young people, and losing some key businesses.

The town, located on the Indiana-Ohio border in the midst of farmland and equidistant from such distribution centers as Indianapolis, Detroit, Columbus and Cincinnati, had been in a slow state of decline since a gas explosion in 1968 killed 41 people and destroyed two downtown blocks.

Subsequently, Avco Corp., an ordnance manufacturer that employed 4,000 workers, and Farm Hand Corp., which made farm implements and had 150 employees, closed their doors.

Richmond officials decided to look to Japan for new jobs, and Vigran suggested they take advantage of the one thing that set the town apart from the scores of other communities trying to attract the Japanese: Earlham College's reservoir of knowledge.

"The first thing I told them to do was not go to Japan," Bailey said. "The first thing I told them to do was get ready here."

Source: © Copyright 1987, *Chicago Tribune Company*, June 21, 1987. All rights reserved, used with permission.

Indiana Cultural Bridge (continued)

"I knew there was a residual anti-Japanese feeling here [from World War II], and I recalled one city leader saying, 'If the Japs come to Richmond...'

"I knew we had to change that attitude, and that man could not go to Japan."

Bailey's plan had several components. First, he established "listening posts" in the community to smoke out anti-Japanese sentiment. They found plenty.

"We had to tell them that the world had changed and if we did not, we might be living in a world of Japanese dependence," Bailey said.

Then he helped leaders build an informational network with Japanese trade associations and bankers in the U.S. He also made trips to Japan to renew his contacts with Waseda University and to try to make new ones with numerous Japanese companies.

"I told the city we need a long-range plan," Bailey said. "That if we did our homework and were ready, within five years we would have somebody. If we are in the ballpark, then that's the plus factor."

Using his students, Bailey helped put together a bilingual brochure, another something smaller cities had not done. They made a videotape, narrated in Japanese by a community leader, that pitched their town as a place to do business.

"It's not that the Japanese can't read English," Bailey said. "But making the gesture means that you have given it thought to get ready."

"Even the banks had brochures in Japanese," said Pat Graupp, a Sanyo executive here. "You can't even get that in New York."

Richmond failed many more times than it succeeded. It wooed automobile manufacturers such as Diamond Star Motors, the Chrysler-Mitsubishi joint venture that ended up going to Bloomington, Ill., and several auto supply companies that also settled elsewhere.

But Sanyo settled in Richmond, and on Wednesday, on the site of D & M's old dishwasher plant, it will open a high-technology compact laser disc production facility, its first in the area.

Sanyo has pumped millions of dollars into both the refrigerator and CD companies, and Richmond leaders and the 300 workers at the two factories see the investment as a sign of long-term commitment.

Once Sanyo made its decision to invest in the town, another phase of Richmond's plan went into effect: making certain that the Japanese felt welcome.

Earlham offered twice-a-week English classes for the approximately 50 Sanyo executives and technicians and their families who moved in. Lunches were held so that Japanese wives did not feel isolated. And in September, the college plans to start a Saturday school so Japanese children can maintain native language skills and cultural traditions. The local hospital has two Japanese-speaking persons on staff, and agents at real estate broker Paul Lingle's office have business cards printed in Japanese.

Graupp said Japanese workers are well received, and they have enjoyed such American institutions as the K-Mart and its competitor, Target, and softball and the golf course at the Forest Hills Country Club.

But the success of the project ultimately will depend on what happens inside the plant walls. In other parts of the country, Japanese firms have met resistance from American labor unions and from workers who do not accept the more strict Japanese management philosophy.

Here, after 15 months, workers and management used the word "coexisting" to describe the relationship between the United Auto Workers Local 2111, which already represents workers at the refrigerator plant, and Sanyo executives.

The CD facility will open as a nonunion shop, but UAW leaders say the workers expect to be recognized soon.

Illinois Rises Among States Luring Japanese

Illinois is catching up with California and New York as a state attractive to Japanese business, says the director of Illinois' second trade office in Japan.

"Illinois especially is very popular among Japanese corporations these days," Hemmer said. "They are impressed by those values of Midwesterners – stability, dependability, hard work."

Hemmer's office opened last week in Tokyo, making Illinois the first state with two trade offices in Japan, and 150 business and government officials were on hand for opening ceremonies.

Direct flights between Tokyo and Chicago and more communication in general are making the Midwest a frequent destination of Japanese business representatives, said Hemmer.

In 1985, California attracted 40% of Japanese investment in the United States, partly because the state is considered to have an easy lifestyle, Hemmer said.

"Illinois is catching up fast," Hemmer said. "It already ranks third in Japanese investment in the United States behind California and New York. There are 380 Japanese companies with offices in Illinois, and we wouild like to see more."

Besides the Tokyo office, Illinois has also had a trade office in Osaka, about 250 miles southwest, for 3 1/2 years.

One of the officials at the opening in Tokyo was Suketada Takei of Mitsubishi Motors Corp.'s U.S. Joint Venture Project Office, working with Chrysler Corp. to build an automobile plant at Bloomington-Normal.

"We have been very impressed with the quality of workers in Illinois," Takei said. "The construction of our plant is already one month ahead of schedule, and the American workers we have been training in Japan are top of the line."

In all, 545 Japanese companies have outposts in the United States, he said.

Hemmer, a Chicago native, speaks Japanese and worked for a Japanese trading company in suburban Batavia beginning in 1979. For the past four years, he worked in Tokyo for a Japanese company that imported American-made computer components.

His job with the state comes as an outgrowth of Gov. James R. Thompson's interest in trade with the Orient. Thompson has traveled to Japan eight times, more official visits than any incumbent U.S. governor.

"The Japanese market is opening up rapidly, and there is no reason for Illinois companies not to be in on the ground floor," Hemmer said. "Japan has a lot of leading-edge technology coming out of its new start-up companies and our office can act as a bridge between those firms and Illinois companies."

Hemmer hopes that recent trade sanctions imposed by the United States, which will drive up the cost of some Japanese electronic products sold in America, will not open a trade war.

"I see my job here in Tokyo as a salesman for Illinois," he said. "I don't like to see the trade problems between Japan and the United States, and there don't have to be those kinds of problems if we can get a lot of business flowing both ways. That's where I think I can make a difference."

Source: *AP Newsfeatures*, 1987. Reprinted by permission.

$500 Million Fuji-Isuzu Plant to be Built in Lafayette, Ind.

DETROIT – Two major Japanese auto manufacturers, Fuji Heavy Industries and Isuzu Motors, said Tuesday they would build a $500 million plant in Lafayette, Ind., to make cars, trucks and buses.

The project, announced several months ago, represents the first such joint venture between two rival Japanese auto manufacturers in the United States although there already are combinations between Japanese and American auto companies operating or building U.S. car plants.

Production will be divided evenly between Fuji's Subaru line of cars and Isuzu vehicles, which include cars, buses, and trucks.

The new joint venture, yet to be named, will be the sixth Japanese automobile production facility in the United States.

The Indiana site, north of Indianapolis, was settled on after a study team assessed bids from several states, including Kentucky, Ohio and Illinois.

"After considering all the available option sites and possibilities, we believe Lafayette represents the best combination of manufacturing benefits, business climate, and quality of life," said Akira Soejima, senior managing director for Fuji.

The plant, which will employ about 1,700, will be a fully integrated vehicle manufacturing operation, from stamping to final assembly, the companies said.

Both companies currently sell only imported vehicles in the United States, and imports of cars are restricted by quotas imposed by the Tokyo government and allocated among Japanese automakers. The so-called voluntary import restraints were accepted by Japan to head off any U.S. quotas.

The two-million-square-foot plant will produce 120,000 cars a year when completed in late 1989. Production capacity eventually will be increased to 240,000 annually, the companies said.

Source: Reuters, 1987. Reprinted by permission.

State Urged to Set Up Trade Office in Japan

by Don Lyle

Colorado needs to set up a trade office in Japan and get high-ranking officials to visit the country if the state hopes to compete for lucrative Japanese investments.

That's the message Morgan Smith, director of the state department of local affairs, said came through during Colorado's recent trade mission to the Far East country.

Colorado still has a "lack-of-image" problem in Japan, Smith said. But if the state improves its visibility, high tech and tourism in Colorado will benefit.

Colorado's quest for new business led to Smith's trade delegation to Japan. But the trade mission is just a start. The effort to make Colorado a sister state to Yamagata Prefecture in Japan is another plus, but isn't enough.

"First, the new governor has to go there, or we're conspicuous by our absence. We should make sure they know Japanese investment is a priority. It's important," he said. After that, he said, Colorado needs to follow up by sending state legislators to the country.

More than half the states have offices in Japan. "We wanted to look at the offices the other states had in Tokyo, see about costs, how they represented themselves in Japan," Smith said.

Japan plans to open a trade office in Denver in October, and four major trading companies already maintain offices here.

Colorado needs to reciprocate, Smith said.

"The Japanese are cautious about doing business in a particular state," he said. "They want to know they're welcome, that they'll get help if they have problems, and that there are other Japanese here."

Right now, Georgia has the best visibility, largely because of former Gov. Jimmy Carter.

Source: *Rocky Mountain News*, June 22, 1986. Reprinted by permission.

State Wakes Up to Smell of Cherry Blossoms

by Bill Hosokawa

Gov.-elect Roy Romer's recent mission to Japan was a belated effort to get some of that Japanese spending funneled into Colorado's depressed economy. Other states recognized Japan's potential as a trading partner as long as a decade ago. Their governors flew to Tokyo repeatedly to make sales pitches for trade, tourism, and investment. Ambassador Mike Mansfield in greeting the mission notes that Romer was the first Colorado governor, and the 49th among all governors, to visit Japan during his tenure.

Although Romer was in Japan only three days, he was an effective emissary. He was frank to admit Colorado had failed to appreciate the opportunities of trade with Japan and promised that had changed. His enthusiasm, direct style, and wit pleased the Japanese. The fact that he was calling on Japan only a month after his election, even before his inauguration, impressed them. So did the size and quality of the Colorado mission – 50 business, civic, and political leaders, including mayors Federico Peña of Denver and Dennis Champine of Aurora.

Romer was listened to attentively by Japanese traders, bankers, and investors as he told of Denver's plans for a new airport, the quality of the state's labor force and research universities, and the pleasant lifestyle.

But Colorado has a long way to go to match up with not only other states, particularly on the West Coast and in the newly industrialized South, but Europe and the entire Far East, including Australia and New Zealand. In Tokyo one quickly understands that Japan's dealings with the United States are important – but only one part of its global economic activity.

Romer made a good start in making the Japanese aware of Colorado's interest. But one trip is not enough to overcome years of neglect or to win new friends and customers. Romer must follow up his ground-breaking mission with other visits as proof of Colorado's determination to win its share of the action.

Additionally, if Colorado is serious about promoting economic relations with Japan, it needs a presence in Tokyo. Some 30 states have representatives there. They range from elaborate offices costing a minimum of $500,000 yearly, to a single part-time employee. It would seem prudent as well as realistic for Colorado to start small until the state becomes more familiar with the problems and opportunities.

Meanwhile there is much that can be done to encourage Japanese tourism and investment. "What do you have in Colorado that other states don't have?" members of Romer's mission were asked repeatedly by Japanese who had listened to dozens of other state delegations. We have a great deal to offer, not the least of which is Western hospitality, and that costs little more than effort.

Japan has demonstrated convincingly it is the free world's next big source of capital for economic development, technology for progess, and a market for our goods. Like it or not, this is reality.

Colorado has been slow to understand this, slow to bid for its share. Romer's mission came back convinced it's late, but not too late.

Source: *Rocky Mountain News*, December 20, 1986. Reprinted by permission.

Japanese Businessmen to Rate Georgia's Investment Climate

by Maria Saporta

Georgia is expected to be rated with "flying colors" when an influential group of Japanese businessmen makes a report on the investment climate in the United States.

A delegation from the Keidanren business organization, a Japanese association of 866 top companies, visited Georgia Monday and Tuesday as part of a tour of six states. Two other Keidanren delegations will be visiting another 10 states throughout the country.

Keidanren picked the 16 states which had the most interest for potential investments from their membership.

Once the report is released, Georgia officials say it will influence where future Japanese investment will go.

"I would say that if we look at Georgia in the broadest possible terms and analyze what is being offered in the state, I think Georgia could come out with flying colors," said Mamoru Sakai, president of the Long-Term Credit Bank of Japan Ltd. and leader of the mission that came to Georgia.

Sakai said that Georgia had several favorable factors for future Japanese investment – a strong economic climate, a Japanese school for children of executives, good airline connections, and positive government attitude toward foreign businesses.

Those factors have helped bring nearly 160 Japanese companies to the state in the last decade, but Sakai said that trend is likely to accelerate because a direct air flight soon will link Atlanta with Tokyo. Japan Air Lines plans to start the two weekly flights in July.

"When the JAL direct flights become a reality, this will certainly be a very positive element for further expansions of the relationship between Georgia and Japan," Sakai said. "The advantage gap will widen between other states and Georgia."

The flights will also help increase the awareness of Georgia in Japan, according to Eiji Umene, a Keidanren member and managing director of the Nippon Steel Corp.

Source: *Atlanta Journal* and *The Atlanta Constitution*, April 9, 1986. Reprinted by permission.

RESOURCES

Audiovisual Materials

An Asset from the Past—The Systematic Approach in Japan. 16mm film, #807, 27 min. Consulate General of Japan, 1975.

Traditional methods of organizing and formalizing life are shown to be quite influential in the organization of modern production methods in Japan.

Are the Japanese Really Unique? VHS and Beta videocassette, 30 min. Japan Trade Center, 1982.

This program presents three scholars who challenge the idea that Japan's success is based on specific cultural characteristics.

Castle Towns: An Introduction to Tokugawa Japan. Slides and supporting print materials. Stanford, CA: The Japan Project, 1981.

These materials serve as an introduction to feudal Japan for upper-elementary and middle-school students.

The Colonel Comes to Japan. 16mm film and VHS videocassette. Deerfield, IL: Learning Corporation of America (n.d.).

Japanese business practices and Japanese-American cross-cultural interaction are the subjects of this film, which examines the establishment of the Kentucky Fried Chicken chain in Japan.

Energy for the Future. 16mm film, #915, 20 min. Consulate General of Japan, 1982.

Japan's dependence on overseas supplies for energy have necessitated a search for alternative sources and methods. That exploration is illustrated in this film.

Faces of Japan. 13 half-hour programs, VHS or Beta videocassette. New York: TeleJapan USA, Inc., 1987.

Titles in this series include: "Story of Noriko," "The Neputa Painter," "Young Baseball Heroes," "Diary of a Police Post," "New Generation," "Two Friends—Two Lives," "Sacred Land," "From Swords to Factories," "American Businessmen in Japan," "A Small Business, Beyond the Classroom," "Running and Running for Mayor," and "The Entertainer." Each video explores a single aspect of current Japanese culture. A viewer's guide with preview questions, discussion ideas, and high school lesson plan suggestions is included.

Full Moon Lunch. 16mm film, 57 min. Consulate General of Japan (n.d.).

Three generations of a Japanese family are observed as they run a box-lunch family business.

The Human Face of Japan. Six 16mm films and VHS videocassettes, 28 min. each. Deerfield, IL: Learning Corporation of America and Films Australia, 1982.

This series of six films examines the lives of Japanese workers in various settings. The six titles are "Lifetime Employment," "Tomorrow and Yesterday," "Raw Fish and Pickle," "The Career Educator," "A Working Couple," and "The Rice Ladle."

Japan Today. Ten 40-50 minute programs, VHS videocassette. New York: TeleJapan USA, Inc., 1984.

This series uses a television interview format to examine various aspects of contemporary Japanese life. The ten titles are "Japanese Culture and Customs," "Japanese Favorite Dishes," "Everyday Life in Japan," "Japanese Customs and Manners," "Japan's Industry," "Japanese Arts and Crafts," "Japan's Sports," "Cultural Exchanges Between U.S./Japan," "Growing Up in Japan," and "Performance and Design in Japan."

The Haiku Moment: Seeing the World in a Grain of Sand. Stanford, CA: The Japan Project, 1980.

This multimedia introduction to *haiku* includes writing activities and is available in both elementary and secondary versions.

Introduction to Japanese: Hiragana. Stanford, CA: The Japan Project, 1977.

These self-contained materials introduce one of the Japanese alphabet systems through a pronunciation tape and workbook in elementary and secondary versions.

Japan's Mass Media. 16mm film, #959, 26 min. Consulate General of Japan, 1982.

The connections between democracy and the mass media are illustrated in this film on modern communications in Japan.

Japanese Architecture: The Living Heritage. 16mm film, #941, 23 min. Consulate General of Japan, 1983.

The influences of traditional architecture on modern construction are explored in this film.

Murphy, Carole. *Stimulate, Saturate, Educate: A Step-by-Step Guide for Planning a Japanese Cultural Festival*. Huntsville, TX: Region VI Education Service Center, 1983.

This videotape and teacher's guide provide detailed directions for planning and conducting a Japanese cultural festival at school.

Music of Modern Japan. 16mm film, #963, 29 min. Consulate General of Japan, 1984.

This presentation of Japanese music illustrates the rich variety of forms played in Japan today.

Preserving Our Environmental Heritage. 16mm film, #942, 21 min. Consulate General of Japan, 1983.

Efforts to overcome the pollution resulting from industrial growth are detailed in this examination of water, noise, and air pollution.

The Rabbit in the Moon: Folktales from China and Japan. Slides and supporting print material. Stanford, CA: The Japan Project, 1979.

Through slide-based activities, elementary students are encouraged to identify cross-cultural themes in folktales.

The Sea—Lifelines for Today and Tomorrow. 16mm film, #913, 20 min. Consulate General of Japan, 1982.

The role of the ocean in providing food and energy to Japan is introduced in this film.

Technology and Tradition. 16mm film, #914, 20 min. Consulate General of Japan, 1982.

This film suggests that the combination of traditional culture and a high degree of worker education and morale have contributed to the technological success of Japan.

Tokyo Family Life. 16mm film, #940, 30 min. Consulate General of Japan, 1983.

The suburban life of an "average middle class" Tokyo family is explored in this film.

Video Letters From Japan. 6 videocassettes. New York: Asian Society, 1982.

The six tapes in this series each contain two topical "letters" designed to give Americans a personal look at Japanese students. A poster and teacher's guide with activities are included for these grade 4-9 lessons. Series titles are: "My Town/Nobles and Samurai," "Tohoku Diary/Summer Vacation," "My Day/Tokyo Sunday," "Living Arts," "Culture in Modern Kyoto/Friends," "Our School/Seasons and Festivals."

Elementary Print Materials

Bernson, Mary Hammond, and Elaine Magnusson, eds. *Modern Japan: An Idea Book for K-12 Teachers*. Olympia, WA: Washington Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1984.

A focus on writing skills unites these multidisciplinary lessons for K-12 students.

Kendall, Carol. *Haunting Tales from Japan*. Lawrence, KS: University of Kansas (n.d.).

Interdisciplinary activities and 12 slides are included in this examination of Japanese culture and religion through folktales.

Czarra, Fred. *The Japan Database: Resources for K-12 Education*. Washington, DC: Council of Chief State School Officers, 1986.

This resource book lists specialists on Japan, sources of information about Japan, curriculum materials, activities and innovative programs, and educational and cultural exchange programs.

Hammond, Mary Alice. "Daruma Magic." *School Arts,* 82, no. 7, March 1983, pp. 30-31.

Students construct paper-mache faces, called *daruma*, to develop self-expression while learning about Japanese children and toys.

Handley, Leslie. *Suggested Activities for Teaching About Japan.* ED 263040. Alexandria, VA: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, 1985.

This collection of five elementary-level activities is based on the expanding environments approach.

Shoresman, Michele, and Waunita Kinoshita. *Learning With Enjoyment–Tanoshii Gakushu.* Urbana, IL: Center for East Asian and Pacific Studies (n.d.).

These activities for grades 1-6 are designed to be integrated into existing curriculum.

Thomas, Paul F. *Suggestions, Resources and Activities for Teaching About Japan.* ED261970. Alexandria, VA: EDRS, 1985.

This resource packet contains 28 modules with materials, activities, and lesson plans for teaching Japanese history and culture at K-12 levels.

Wooster, Judith. *Halfway Around the World Last Week.* Albany, NY: Bureau of Social Studies Education, 1984.

This activity book for teaching about Japan with a global perspective includes activities on such aspects of contemporary culture as comic books, space, and baseball.

Secondary Print Materials

Becker, James, and Linda Wojtan. *Parallel Passages: Contrasting Views From U.S. and Japan.* Bloomington, IN: Social Studies Development Center, 1983.

Using selections from Japanese and American social studies textbooks, these activities with handouts contrast and compare mutual perceptions of the two nations.

Cogan, John J., and Donald O. Schneider, eds. *Perspectives on Japan: A Guide for Teachers.* Bulletin #69. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1983.

This bulletin provides several perspectives on Japan and the Japanese, as well as ideas for teaching about those perspectives.

Condon, John C. *Interact–Japan/U.S.* Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press, 1982.

An analysis of the cultural differences between Americans and Japanese is presented to show students how these differences offset working relationships.

Contemporary Japan: A Teaching Workbook. New York: Columbia University, East Asian Curriculum Project, 1986.

The lessons and units of this comprehensive workbook provide a variety of activities for grades 7-12.

Geiger, Rita, et al. *Japan.* Oklahoma City, OK: Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1983.

The topical approach used in these materials emphasizes global awareness in examining Japanese society.

Gibbons, Joan, and others. *Peoples, Processes and Patterns: Japan.* Birmingham, AL: City of Birmingham Polytechnic, 1981.

These worksheets and activities with background readings are designed to involve elementary and secondary students in understanding basic principles of Japanese design.

The Global Product: Internationalization of the Auto Industry. Stanford, CA: The Japan Project, 1985.

Economic interdependence is explored in this unit on the automobile industry.

In Search of Mutual Understanding: A Classroom Approach. Denver: Center for Teaching International Relations and Social Studies Development Center, 1985.

Lessons developed as a result of a study of U.S. textbook coverage of Japan include activities on geography, religion, and language.

An Introduction to International Trade: Focus on Japan and the U.S. Stanford, CA: The Japan Project, 1985.

This interactive unit introduces the concepts and practices of international trade.

Jones, Savannah C. *Japan.* Birmingham, AL: Birmingham City Schools, 1984.

Fourteen study units with activities, readings, and tests comprise this interdisciplinary course.

Lindfors, Burton J. *Economics in Japan: A Curriculum Project*. San Francisco: Irvine Unified School District, 1983.

These eight units cover the reemergence, development, and current state of the Japanese economy.

Minear, Richard H. *Through Japanese Eyes*. Vols. 1 and 2. New York: Center for International Training and Education, 1987.

This two-volume work provides readings on current and historical Japan, as well as structural-inquiry-based lesson plans.

Turkovich, Marilyn, and others. *Omiyage: Japanese Language and Culture*. Chicago: Associates in Multicultural and International Education, 1986.

More then 100 multimedia-based activities are presented in this resource, which covers the Japanese language and culture for students in grades 6-12.

Wojtan, Linda S., and Judith M. Blohm. *Introduction to Japan: A Workbook*. Washington, DC: Youth for Understanding, 1986.

Designed to prepare students for exchange programs in Japan, this workbook contains background readings and activities on Japanese history, geography, society, religion, trade, defense, and cross-cultural communication.

Organizations

Amerasia Bookstore
321 Towne Avenue
Los Angeles, CA 90013

This nonprofit organization publishes a catalog of books, materials, and visual media on Japanese Americans.

The Asia Society
Education and Communication Department
725 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10021

This nonprofit educational organization publishes the resource journal *Focus on Asian Studies* and provides many other materials for teaching about Asia.

Columbia University
East Asian Curriculum Project
East Asian Institute
420 West 18th Street
New York, NY 10027

Many classroom materials for teaching about Japan are available from this center.

Committee on Teaching About Asia (CTA)
c/o Associated Colleges of the Midwest
Urban Education Program
5633 North Kenmore, #24
Chicago, IL 60660

CTA, a standing committee of the Association for Asian Studies, serves to improve the teaching of Asian studies at all levels. A quarterly newsletter is available by subscription.

Foreign Policy Association
205 Lexington Avenue
New York, NY 10016

FPA publishes various materials and activities for teaching about Japan.

Harvard East Asia Program
Boston Children's Museum
300 Congress Street
Boston, MA 02210

The museum sells teaching units and has resources available for loan.

International Society for Education Information
Michiko Kaya
Kikuai Building, N.7-8
2-chome
Shintomi, Chuo-ku, Tokyo, Japan

The society has a variety of resources available for educators.

Japan Foundation
Los Angeles Office
244 South San Pedro Street, Suite 508
Los Angeles, CA 90012

Washington Office
Watergate Office Building, Suite 570
600 New Hampshire Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20037-2478

The foundation promotes mutual understanding by supporting a variety of cultural exchange programs.

Japan National Tourist Organization (JNTO)

JNTO has films, maps, and brochures available for student groups. Offices are located at the following addresses:

1737 Post Street
San Francisco, CA 94115

630 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10022

624 South Grand Avenue, Room 2640
Los Angeles, CA 90017

2270 Kalakaua Avenue, Suite A03
Honolulu, HI 96815

333 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago, IL 60601

1519 Main Street
Dallas, TX 75201

Japan Society, Inc.
333 East 47th Street
New York, NY 10017

Japan societies are located throughout the United States. Most offer educational and cultural activities.

Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO)

JETRO has available several films and a series of booklets on Japanese business. Contact the office nearest your school.

24th Floor, Bank of America Tower
555 South Flower Street
Los Angeles, CA 90071

Quantes Building, Union Square
360 Post Street, Suite 501
San Francisco, CA 94108

1200 17th Street, Suite 141
Denver, CO 80202

401 North Michigan Avenue, Suite 660
Chicago, IL 60611

McGraw-Hill Building, 44th Floor
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

World Trade Center, 1st Floor
2100 Stemmans Freeway
Dallas, TX 75258

1221 McKinney
One Houston Center, Suite 870
Houston, TX 77010

Japanese American Curriculum Project
414 East Third Avenue
San Mateo, CA 94401

This is a retail distributor of books and educational materials about Asian Americans.

National Council for the Social Studies
3501 Newark Street, NW
Washington, DC 20016

NCSS administers several teacher scholarship travel programs to Japan and publishes materials on teaching strategies.

Stanford University
Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE)
The Japan Project
Lou Henry Hoover Building, Room 200
Stanford, CA 94305

This nonprofit educational project publishes many materials and units for teaching about Japan.

Embassy and Consulates General (Including Jurisdictional Areas)

Embassy of Japan
2520 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20008

Information and Culture Center
Embassy of Japan
917 19th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20006

The center answers telephone and written inquiries about Japan and recommends speakers, films, and other audiovisuals as well as printed information regarding Japan and Japanese life.

Permanent Mission of Japan to the United Nations
866 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017

Consulate General of Japan
Guam International Trade Center Building,
6th Floor
Tamuning Guam 96910

Guam and Pacific Islands

Consulate General of Japan
400 Colony Square Building, Suite 1501
1201 Peachtree Street
Atlanta, GA 30361

Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia

Consulate General of Japan
2519 Commerce Tower
911 Main Street
P.O. Box 13768
Kansas City, MO 64105

Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota

Consulate General of Japan
737 N. Michigan Avenue, Suite 1100
Chicago, IL 60611

Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Wisconsin

Consulate General of Japan
1830 International Trade Mart Building
Two Canal Street
New Orleans, LA 70130

Arkansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee

Consulate General of Japan
280 Park Avenue
New York, NY 10017

Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands, West Virginia

Consulate of Japan
5420 Allied Bank Plaza
1000 Louisiana Street
Houston, TX 77002

Oklahoma, Texas

Consulate General of Japan
Federal Reserve Plaza, 14th Floor
600 Atlantic Avenue
Boston, MA 02210

Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont

Consulate General of Japan
1742 Nuuanu Avenue
Honolulu, HI 96817

Hawaii and territories not included in the jurisdictions of the other consulates of the United States

Consulate General of Japan
909 West 9th Avenue, Suite 320
Anchorage, AK 99501

Alaska

Consulate General of Japan
1110 Rainier Bank Tower
1301 5th Avenue
Seattle, WA 98101

Idaho (all areas north of Idaho County), Montana, Washington

Consulate General of Japan
2400 First National Bank
1300 SW 5th Avenue
Portland, OR 97201

Idaho (outside the jurisdiction of the Seattle Consulate), Oregon, Wyoming

Consulate General of Japan
250 East First Street, Suite 1507
Los Angeles, CA 90012

Arizona, California (counties of Los Angeles, Orange, San Diego, Imperial, Riverside, San Bernardino, Ventura, Santa Barbara, and San Luis Obispo), New Mexico

Consulate General of Japan
1601 Post Street
San Francisco, CA 94115

California (not included in the jurisdiction of the Los Angeles Consulate General), Colorado, Nevada, Utah